

THE TEACHING OF
SOCIAL STUDIES
IN
SECONDARY SCHOOLS

by
JAMES HEMMING

With a Foreword by
SIR CYRIL BURT

SECOND EDITION

145
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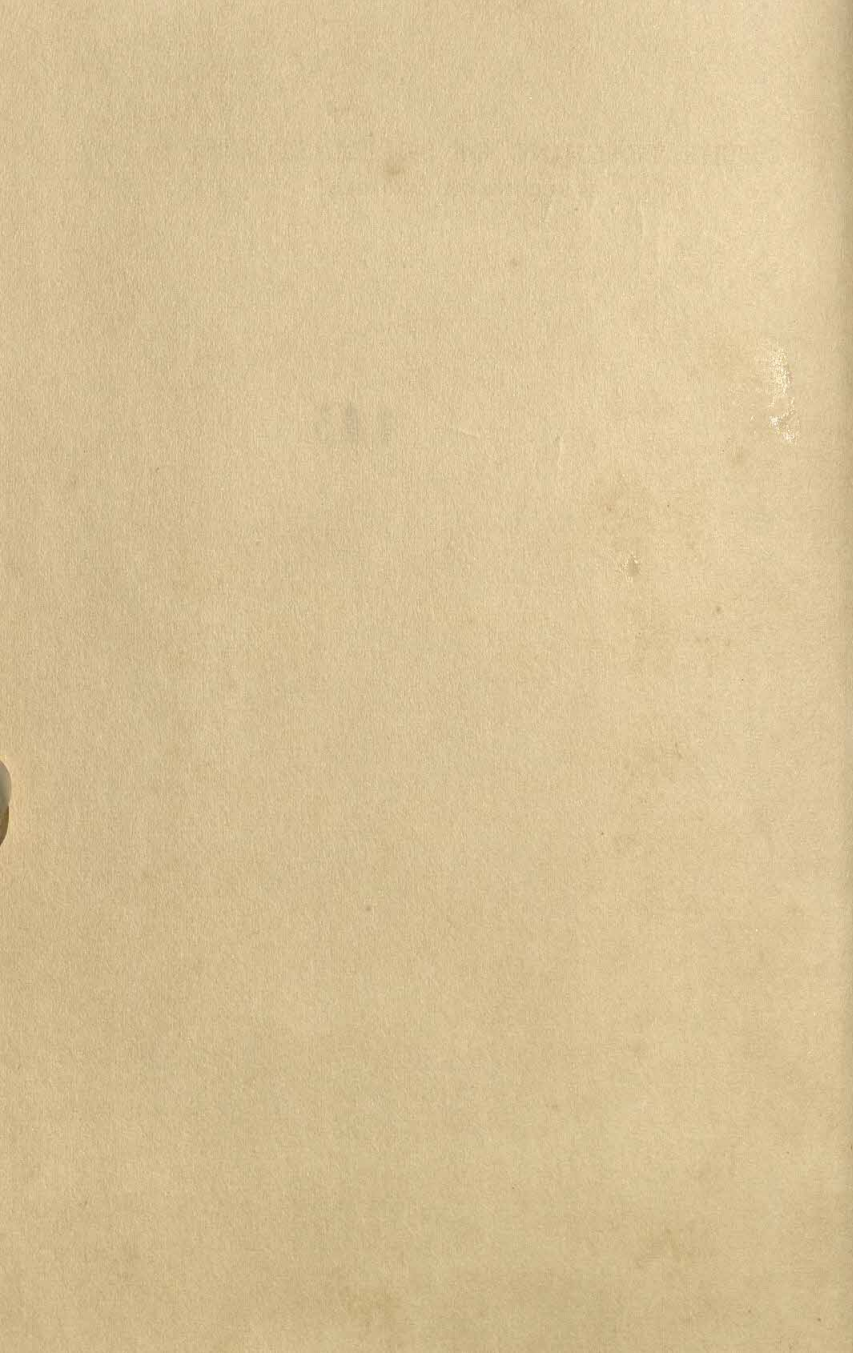
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THE TEACHING OF SOCIAL STUDIES
IN SECONDARY SCHOOLS

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A Challenge to Parents
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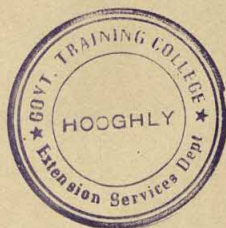
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Emeritus Professor of Psychology in the University of London



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DEDICATION

To the Teacher on the Job

FOREWORD

BY

SIR CYRIL BURT, M.A., D.Sc., LL.D.

Emeritus Professor of Psychology, University of London

THERE ARE many sound reasons, psychological as well as practical, for including a course on social studies in the school curriculum. From the vast amount of psychological research that has been carried out during the last fifty years, a challenging conclusion emerges. In contrast to the individualist philosophy of the Victorian age, the psychologist has taught us that a human personality is nothing apart from his environment. Admittedly one individual may differ widely from another in the mental and physical potentialities with which he is endowed at birth. But these potentialities need a suitable environment in which to develop. The seed cannot grow, the plant cannot blossom; unless the soil and the climate are favourable.

But, unlike a mere vegetable, a man not only responds to his environment; he takes active cognizance of it. It follows that, if we want our young people to grow into happy, mature, well-balanced adults, we must be at pains to familiarize them with the complicated and confusing environment into which they are born. We must give them opportunities of finding out something of the inter-relatedness of the things around them, and of learning something of the bonds that link them to their material and social surroundings. Only

in this way can we prepare children for the task of personal adaptation to the civilized life of today.

It is for this reason that every teacher and every educational psychologist will gladly welcome Mr. Hemming's admirable book on the teaching of social studies. He realizes to the full the complexities of the problems that confront the modern educator.

Education has three main aims—the material, the cultural, and the social. The parent looks first to material requirements. He demands, above all else, that education should fit the child to earn his living: he thinks of education as primarily a form of vocational preparation. Unless the child can read, write, and reckon, he will not obtain a job; and perhaps if he knows Mathematics, French, and a little Science, he will get a better job. The philosopher, on the other hand, insists on the cultural rather than the utilitarian value of the subjects: his idea of education is that it should aim at the complete and harmonious development of all the capacities of the individual. Yet this second aim is as egocentric as the first; and both ignore the third great duty of the adult citizen, namely, to play his part as a member of the society into which he has been born.

In the relatively simple conditions that obtained down to the middle of the nineteenth century, this aspect of education could be left very largely to take care of itself. A man who was at once vocationally adequate and culturally adequate could generally be trusted to turn into an efficient citizen without any special form of training. Today, however, conditions are very different. The social, economic, and political problems of the modern world are so intricate that few young people can be trusted to pick up the necessary informa-

tion, or to teach themselves to think clearly and logically on the numerous problems that confront them. Yet the democratic ideal insists more strongly than ever that each citizen should take his part, and have his say, in decisions of national and even international importance.

These new requirements involve not only a drastic revision of the topics taught, but also a wholesale improvement in teaching methods. Some pupils, when grown up, will have mental ages of only ten or eleven; others will be as far beyond the average as these are below it. And these innate differences in general ability are irremediable. It follows that in teaching the new subjects to pupils of different types new methods must be adopted.

Much of this is already accepted both by teachers and by educationalists. There is, indeed, a healthy stir observable throughout the whole field of education. Outworn ideas are being discarded; and their place is being taken by a new approach, founded on the large body of psychology which, since the beginning of the century, has gradually been accumulated, and is now providing the teacher and the administrator with definite knowledge in regard to the mental development of children, and the kind of curricula and teaching methods suited to different ages, to different sexes, and to different types of individual.

During this period of transition, however, we need to be cautious as well as courageous. Otherwise, what is new may become an end in itself, and the underlying principles slip from sight amid the general enthusiasm for change. The new tools which the modern teacher has at his command—the wireless, the cinema, visual methods of every kind, project methods, and activity methods—are all to be welcomed. But any

inclination to rush to one or the other, as if it were a panacea for all the inadequacies of the past, must be strenuously resisted. Unless their adoption is planned in terms of a wider educational philosophy, the hasty adoption of novel devices will only lead to fresh confusion.

Here the attitude adopted by Mr. Hemming in his book seems to me to be excellent. He realizes the full value of these modern methods. But he sets them in the framework of an integrated course, and is careful to relate the new practices to their theoretical basis.

As he points out, one of the most important aims in curriculum-building will be to give children an active insight into the detailed structure of the world in which they live, and an intelligent assurance that they can participate effectively in its various operations. To offer knowledge only, by means of isolated subject units, is not sufficient. If the content of the teaching is detached from the actual problems of everyday existence, that teaching will fail. Children today need a school course which provides a duly co-ordinated experience. To give historical perspective, it must no doubt reach back into the past; but equally it must be intimately concerned with life and social structure here and now. The course of studies envisaged by Mr. Hemming is admirably suited to meet such needs.

Psychological research has shifted emphasis from the material learnt to the method of learning. We have come to realize that it is the less tangible element so education—attitudes, ideals, and enthusiasms—that tend to persist rather than factual content. Thus, a course of study is to be judged by the extent to which the interests and enthusiasms of the child are stimulated rather than by the number of items memorized or absorbed. Even in those fields where retention of

material is essential for success, the best method of achieving this is to excite a personal interest in the topics learnt. Only when interest is aroused is retention ensured.

We may therefore safely abandon the myths of an earlier period about the special cultural quality of this or that particular content of the curriculum. Our task today is more straightforward. We have first to ask ourselves what the child needs to know in order to be an effective personality and a useful citizen in the modern world. When that has been agreed upon, our next task is to present the requisite material in as lively and as co-ordinated a fashion as we can, so that the young people may co-operate willingly and actively in their own instruction. By this means we shall create an educational situation within which good and lasting attitudes towards study are built up. The traditional methods—as we see in broad sections of the community today—have often produced exactly the opposite results. Factual content has been supplied and then lost; and little else is left over from the labour of school but a sharp distaste for education in every form.

As Mr. Hemming has convincingly shown, a well-designed and well-conducted course of social studies can fulfil all the main educational requirements of a field of study. It will satisfy the need of the child to understand his environment and his relations with it; and it will go far to satisfy the need of society for well-adjusted citizens prepared to participate in solving the pressing problems of our times. And at the same time it is fully in keeping with the findings of modern psychological research on learning, transfer of training, and the formation of desirable and lasting attitudes towards life.

If anyone doubts the feasibility of these new ideas, let him visit some of the modern types of school, where the whole curriculum is centred on a social studies course, where history and geography are taught from a social standpoint, where boys and girls learn the elements of economics, psychology, and logical reasoning, where they are introduced to modern art and modern technology, where they learn the principles of national and local government, where they discover how to read a newspaper and how to use a library, and where a liberal education is imparted through vocational and even domestic subjects. Let the visitor ask the boys and girls which type of education they enjoy most; and let him ask himself which has the greatest value.

Nowadays, it is often said that we are witnessing a race between education and catastrophe. But it is largely a race between two ideals of education—the old and the new—between an old outmoded system of instruction, unrelated to modern issues, and a newer educational system, designed to interpret the modern world, to provide a common background of socially significant knowledge, and so to promote the growth of a common culture and understanding among men. *The Teaching of Social Studies* is admirably planned to make a contribution to such a system. I have no hesitation, therefore, in recommending it to all those teachers who are seeking to bring their curricula and their teaching methods into line with modern knowledge and with modern needs. And I make this recommendation with the greater confidence because the book itself is frankly exploratory, and resists all temptation to lay down rigid structure or dogmatic principles.

University College, London

July 14, 1948

CYRIL BURT

PREFACE

WHAT ARE Social Studies? Is a Social Studies course just History plus Geography and Civics or does it cover a wider field? What methods are appropriate? What qualifications do those who teach Social Studies require? Do the new ways work? Are the changes they involve educationally necessary?

To answer those questions is not a simple matter, since the interpretation of the term Social Studies varies to some extent between country and country, area and area, school and school. There is, therefore, no model that one can offer in its entirety. The best that can be done is to sift the varieties of theory and practice, to select from the rather confusing abundance what seems to achieve the most successful results, and then to attempt to co-ordinate all that is best into a comprehensive scheme. That is what this book sets out to do. Its purpose is to give such information and guidance, based on the successful experiences of many teachers and schools, as may provide a starting-point for those who want to introduce a Social Studies course but wish to "get the feel of it" first. It is hoped that the book will also be of assistance to those who have already had experience of Social Studies.

The author would like to take this opportunity to acknowledge gratefully the ready assistance that has been given to him on every hand, and to welcome any comments or suggestions for the improvement of this book.

He would like to thank, in particular, the Management of *The Times Educational Supplement* for permission to

reprint the account of a Health Project (pages 125 to 128) and to the same Management and to Mr. F. E. Deakin of William Crane Junior Boys' School, Nottingham, for permission to include the bulk of an article on "The Discoverers' Club" (pages 104 to 106). Thanks are also gratefully accorded to Mr. M. L. Jacks and Messrs. Kegan Paul for a number of excerpts from *Total Education*, to Sir Cyril Burt and the Management of *Universities Quarterly* for quotations from a paper on "Transfer of Training," to Dr. Julian Huxley and Messrs. Chatto and Windus for a passage from a paper on "Education as a Social Function," to Dr. C. M. Fleming for quotations from a book and speech of hers, to Mr. A. J. A. Nelson, Representative in the U.K. for the Commonwealth of Australia Office of Education, for his friendly help and co-operation, to Dr. J. M. Brew for her valuable comments on Chapter V, and to Mr. David Jordan, Principal of Dudley Training College, for a number of stimulating conversations.

In addition the author is greatly indebted to those responsible for a number of important documents from which portions have been quoted. These include the *Report on Secondary Education* of the Advisory Council on Education in Scotland, *The Education (Post-Primary Instruction) Regulations 1945* of the Education Department of New Zealand Government, the Victoria Schools Board's recommendations on *Social Studies for Schools*, the Social Studies recommendations of the New South Wales Department of Education, the *Programme of Studies* of the Ontario Ministry of Education, and the Harvard Report, *General Education in a Free Society*.

Finally, the author wishes especially to thank the many teachers who have given generous help by sharing their ideas and experiences with him.

A NOTE ON RELIGION

CORRESPONDENCE AND conversation arising from the first edition of this book have made it clear that a number of people are concerned about the relationship between Religion and Social Studies, particularly as regards Christianity. What follows is tentative and, perforce, brief; but it is hoped that it may help to clarify the issues raised.

A Social Studies course sets out to educate for life in the modern world. Its approach is to the whole personality of the child. It seeks to provide experience along with knowledge, and to encourage the child to think for himself. It aims at educating for self-reliance as well as for participation in a co-operative purpose. Further, it aims at facing the child with problems requiring selections and decisions. It thus brings into the foreground of consciousness the need to clarify fundamental values in order that the choices made shall be good, not *only* by the criterion of the child's immediate inclinations, but *also* in the light of the child's dawning awareness of himself as a person growing into a fuller and more responsible participation in the adventure of mankind. Social Studies, in fact, being by nature *co-ordinated and co-ordinating*, can aim at developing jointly self-awareness, social awareness, and awareness of environment, together with a growing consciousness of participation in something bigger than the self.

Some people see danger in such a pattern and purpose for Social Studies. They fear that a Social Studies course,

which boldly faces problems of value and purpose, is trying to set itself up as a sort of secular alternative to Christianity. Others, however, disturbed by the amount of individualism *within the classroom* to-day—whether to “win” places at the Grammar School, to come out top of the form, to pass examinations or to beat the other fellow in the job hunt—feel that a broad course of general active study, which emphasizes co-operation, and encourages joy in work rather than utilitarian attitudes, is an essential sector of a Christian education.

The space available makes it necessary to restrict attention to a few points which, in the writer’s experience, lie at the heart of this difference of opinion.

In the first place, *of course* Social Studies interrelate with the religious history and experience of mankind. Every young child poses, sooner or later, the ultimate metaphysical problems such as “Where did I come from?” and “What is God?” Again, every adolescent yearns to feel some personal relationship between his puny self and the mighty Cosmos. “What is it all *for*?” young people ask themselves, especially when the gloomy mood is on. Further, the development of religious thought—especially, for the west, that of Christianity—the values it has stressed, the organized forms it has assumed, the ideas it has fostered or suppressed, are obviously inextricably interwoven with the evolution of society. Clearly, then, a Social Studies course must include religion in its content.

People of different religions and attitudes, and those who prefer to describe themselves as “Humanists” seem ready enough to agree so far. But difficulties arise as soon as we come to *how* the religious element shall be dealt with in Social Studies. The convinced “believers” and the convinced “humanists” both appear to feel strongly that

Social Studies should be framed to serve their particular ideologies. Since an exploration of this situation soon shows that not two but scores of different ideological attitudes are involved—each seeking to make Social Studies its very own—the quandary is no slight one.

Nevertheless, no difficulty really arises in terms of the avowed purpose of Social Studies. The purpose of a Social Studies course is *not* to teach young people the unquestioning acceptance of *any* point of view, but to encourage them to think for themselves. Its axiom might be put as “search out all things; hold fast to that which is good.” Its faith is that truth can prevail in personal and public life only if the members of a community are trained to think and feel clearly, courageously and honestly.

But what of the teacher? Is he or she to preserve ideological neutrality? The answer is, of course, that if the Social Studies course is to have meaning and vitality, the teacher must at all times be himself (or herself). Social Studies provides an educative social situation in which teacher and pupils are exploring *together*. The rôle of the teacher as guide and interpreter in this situation is immensely important. *The teacher's aim is to interpret, never to indoctrinate.* Any attempt to “sell” a specific point of view to the pupils ruins *rapprochement* between teacher and class. Rather the teacher should endeavour to lead the pupils into experiences and explorations from which they may discover *why* values matter and *why* a purpose in life is necessary. The teacher also seeks to awaken a sense of wonder, a vision of the mystery of the whole.

It follows that Social Studies has common ground with every way of life that is an honest attempt democratically to solve the problems of living, of living together, and of living for worthy aims that transcend the self and demand both vision and sacrifice.

HISTORY AND GEOGRAPHY

IN VIEW of anxieties exhibited by certain historians and geographers about the precise rôle of Social Studies in education, a word or two seems indicated on the relationship between History, Geography and Social Studies.

History and Geography are either specialist disciplines or they are not. If they are, then they are clearly *not* well designed to give to the child, in a synthesized form, that sense of relationship with the *whole* of his environment, past and present, which is the particular function of Social Studies in schools. If, conversely, History and Geography can, independently, do all that a Social Studies course aims to do—as some claim—then they are not specialist disciplines. The historians and geographers cannot have it both ways.

In fact, Social Studies is no more a rival of History or Geography than General Science is a rival of Physics, Chemistry or Biology. Whenever the proper educational aim is to develop general understanding, then Social Studies and General Science are to be preferred, *on educational and psychological grounds*, to isolated disciplines; especially (1) in the early stages of study, before the break up into specialist disciplines properly occurs, and (2) to provide background for advanced students who are specializing in other fields.

Finally, what is the relationship between a Social Studies course in schools and Social Studies as a university discipline? Both are primarily concerned with man as a social being. Both require a broad awareness and understanding of man's environment and his relationships with it. A school Social Studies course is, therefore, an admirable preliminary to Social Studies as a specialist discipline, not least because it develops the outlook, attitudes and working habits that are required by the social studies specialist.

CONTENTS

	PAGE
FOREWORD	vii
PREFACE	xiii
A NOTE ON RELIGION	xv
HISTORY AND GEOGRAPHY	xviii
SOME DEFINITIONS	xxi
CHAPTER I. BRIDGING THE GAP	I
What are Social Studies?—A sample project—A statement of objectives—The educational value of Social Studies—Summary of objectives	
CHAPTER II. MOTIVATING THE ADOLESCENT	26
Motivating influences—Slants of approach—Social motivation—Shaping Social Studies material—Motivating techniques—Should school be fun?—Summary	
CHAPTER III. INITIAL PLANNING	44
Shaping the syllabus—A catalogue of contents—Education in relationships—A catalogue of relationships—Points of practice—Working out the syllabus—What is to show for it?—If time is short—Introducing Social Studies—Overseas viewpoint	
CHAPTER IV. PATTERN OF A PROJECT	71
An air mail letter to Australia—More points of practice	
CHAPTER V. GENERAL BACKGROUND ACTIVITIES	89
Personal books—Reporters—Experts panel—News brief—Shipping—How is Britain Doing?—Time lines and Time books—Roll of honour—The Discoverers' Club	

CHAPTER VI. SAMPLE UNITS	108
Where is the school?—Smuggling—A ride round Ex- town—Hidden treasures—£1 to spend—Keeping things going—Who thought of it?—The sea—Paying for Puddleton—The struggle against night—Holiday project—Music, play or film project—Men and moun- tains—Do you use your mind?—What is democracy? —Feeding mankind—Finding the world—Dramatizing Hansard—What is crime—Our clothes—The history of human flight—Getting on with others—One world —Account of a health project—Points of practice— The whole and the parts	
CHAPTER VII. THE TEACHER'S PART	132
The teacher as interpreter—Necessary qualities—Keep- ing up to date—Personal maturity—Sources of material —Learning while teaching—Keeping things moving— Form discussions—Framework of a course—Special tasks—Background books	
CHAPTER VIII. ASSESSING PROGRESS	152
Why do we need to test?—What do we need to test?— How shall we test?	
CHAPTER IX. THE FINAL YEAR	163
Content of the final year course—The "musts"— Methods—More "musts."	
POSTSCRIPT	170
INDEX	173

SOME DEFINITIONS

AS THE reader may not be familiar with some terms used in this book the following definitions should be noted :

PROJECT. A co-operative study activity directed towards a clearly defined objective, e.g. *The History of Railways*. This project might take a whole form a month or longer. Models of engines might be made, sketches drawn, books read, facts gathered, etc., the subject being covered simultaneously from many angles by sharing tasks out among the pupils. Several projects may themselves be unified in a centre of interest such as *London Past and Present* or *The Needs of Man*.

PERSONAL PROJECT. An individual study activity having bearing upon a central theme, e.g. *Europe*. The child assembles facts, illustrations, etc., or carries out other work.

STUDY UNIT. An area of human knowledge or experience upon which attention is concentrated for a period. A study unit may be a part of a project or it may be worked independently. Thus *Wool* might be studied within a project on *Clothing Mankind* or it might be studied by itself. "Study Unit" is the equivalent of "Topic."

SCRAP BOOK. A collection of cuttings and extracts with a central theme.

FORM REFERENCE BOOK (OR FILE). Material gathered by the co-operative activity of the form and stored in book form or as a file of information in the form's reference library.

PERSONAL STUDY BOOK. A book of facts, maps, written comments, etc., collected by an individual pupil around

some centre of interest. To make such a book would be a Personal Project. A Personal Project, however, need not include compiling a Study Book: it might sometimes be better developed say by making wall charts instead. A Personal Study Book is a more mature version of a Scrap Book. "Theme Book" is another name for a Personal Study Book.

PERSONAL RECORD BOOK. A book in which each pupil keeps a record of his activities and accomplishments in the Social Studies course.

FORM LOG BOOK. A record of the activities of the form as a whole. The book is kept by the pupils themselves. (The office of Form Secretary is usually changed fairly frequently.)

FORM. Used in this book to cover both class and form.

THE MASCULINE GENDER is used to obviate the need for repeating his (or her), etc.

Happy men are full of the present.

CARLYLE

If an adolescent passes through the age of puberty without developing the necessary awareness of that stage, it is very likely that he will be lacking in that quality up to the end of his life.

KARL MANNHEIM, *Diagnosis of Our Time*

It is not sufficient merely to teach our pupils how to observe correctly in this field or that, how to read and listen critically, or how to argue logically according to a rigorous and rational scheme; we must at the same time make them passionately eager to become first-rate observers, critical readers, and cautious and rigorous reasoners.

SIR CYRIL BURT, *Universities Quarterly*, vol. i, No. 3

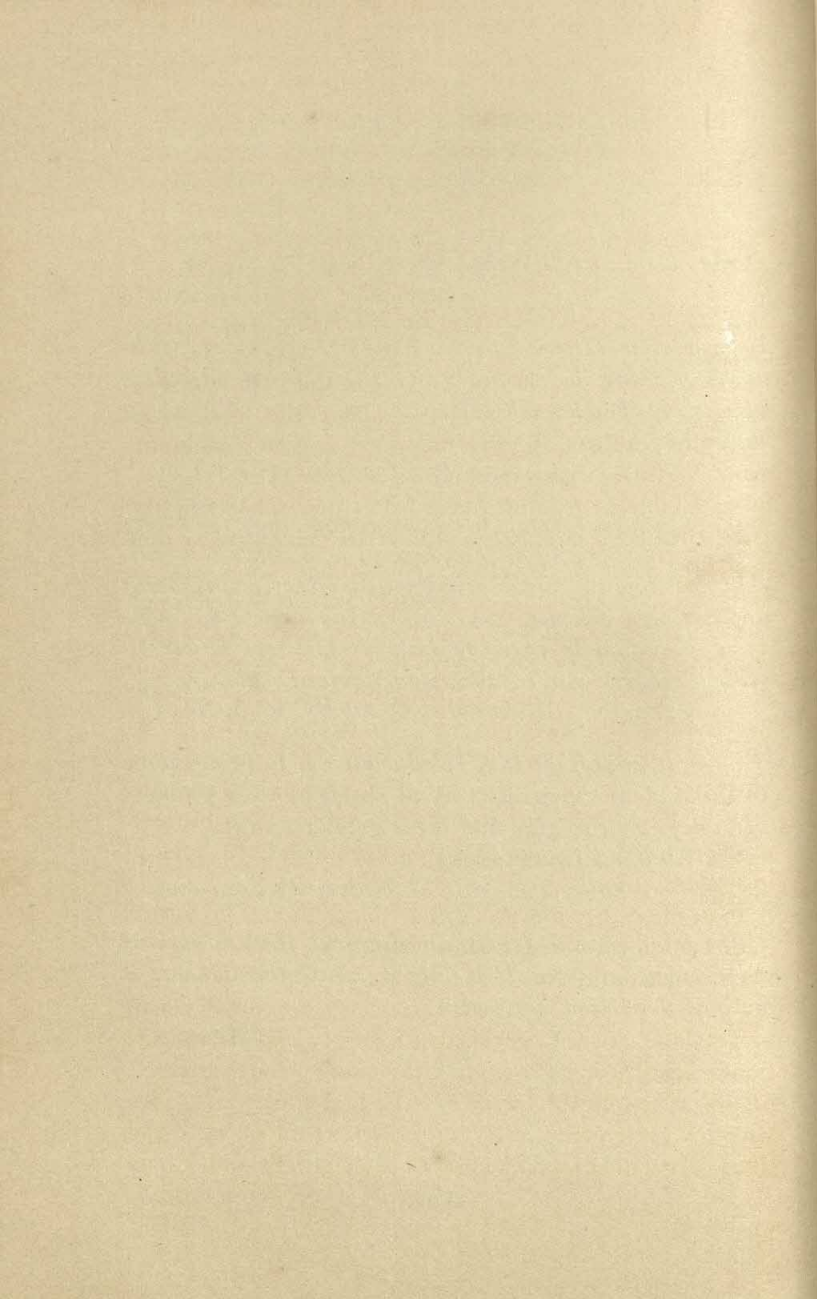
The most important task of education is to bring home to the student the greatest of all problems—the problem of living—and to give him some guidance in it.

SIR RICHARD LIVINGSTONE,

Some Thoughts on University Education

If the mind of man gets its nourishment, there is nothing which will not grow. If it loses its nourishment, there is nothing which will not perish.

MENCIUS



CHAPTER ONE

BRIDGING THE GAP

TODAY many people are conscious that something is missing in education over and above the inadequate supply of teachers, shortage of space, and lack of equipment. Well-tried class methods seem to work less successfully. Children demand more from their schools at the same time as seeming less willing to get down to that necessary solid work of learning without which reasonable standards cannot be attained. Neat well-planned curricula, conscientiously followed out, often fail to produce the expected results: semi-literacy exists at one end of the I.Q. scale, and, even in the Grammar Schools, which have the advantage of a selective entry, disinterested apathy about learning may be found among anything up to fifty per cent of the pupils. Teaching itself no longer provides its erstwhile satisfactions because teachers feel less certain that they are successfully achieving useful objectives.

It is, of course, inevitable that things should be out of joint in this way. The racing changes of the last twenty years, culminating in this revolutionary era to which we are now struggling to adjust ourselves, have caused a gap to develop between the needs of society and its institutions. In the legal system, the penal code, industrial organization, health services, child welfare, and elsewhere, we see institutions falling short of the needs of the times. Parliamentary machinery itself groans and falters

under the new tasks it has to undertake. Teaching is no exception. A gap exists there too—the gap between learning and life—and it will continue to broaden until the necessary steps are taken to close it. Until the experience of learning and the experience of life are integrated, children will remain relatively apathetic and non-co-operative towards the efforts of their teachers. Nor can the gap be closed merely by such improvements as more and better schools and equipment, more teachers and smaller forms—important as these are—but only by methods that do in fact bring the curriculum into closer relationship with the needs and aspirations of those living in these mid-twentieth-century days. We need a reassessment of the curriculum's purpose; a new attitude to the whole function of education.¹

But merely to innovate may achieve nothing but a different sort of failure and frustration. We have to make changes, but they must be the right changes. The objective of this book, therefore, is to submit suggestions on some of the modifications of orthodox practice that are necessary in order that the educational system may fulfil its social function more efficiently; so that teachers may capture a more vivid sense of purpose in their work; so that pupils may be stimulated to respond with readier co-operation to the efforts of their teachers. The whole field cannot be covered in one short book; attention will therefore be concentrated upon what a well-planned Social Studies course is able to achieve in preparing and equipping the young person of secondary-school age for life in the modern world. The age-range mainly under consideration will be that from 11+ to 15+. The special

¹ Karl Mannheim sums this up on p. 59 of *Diagnosis of Our Time* (Kegan Paul) when he expresses the view that the modern teacher should "think of himself not so much as a schoolmaster but as a life-master."

problem of general education at the sixth-form level in Grammar schools cannot be handled in detail here, although a good deal of what will be said has relevance to it.

What are Social Studies?

Different people mean different things by Social Studies because, fortunately, exact scope and function have not been standardized. In its least developed form, a Social Studies course is sometimes built up merely by breaking down the artificial barriers separating the subject fields of History and Geography, and adding enough Civics to supply pupils with essential information such as how the legal system works and the form and scope of local government.

But most schools that try out Social Studies soon pass beyond this rudimentary conception and see that the course has a more valuable educational function—that of revealing to the child where he is in time, space, and society, and the relationships that link the present with the past, the local with the distant, and personal and national life with the lives and cultures of other men and women elsewhere in time and space. It becomes, in fact, the study of relations and interrelations—historical, geographical, and social—and so provides the young person with that basis of public knowledge and orientation to life without which he is left unaware of the significance of study, his personality is denied the means of integration, his interest left unstirred and his energies untapped. In addition, a broad Social Studies course provides a core of knowledge, experience, and insight around which other subjects, at whatever degree of specialization, may be built up in a co-ordinated way.

All schools benefit from such a course. Modern schools

find that a Social Studies course has a stimulating influence upon the study of other subjects, such as English and mathematics; both of which are given added meaning if their content interlocks with that of Social Studies to some extent. Grammar schools that are sufficiently daring to introduce Social Studies find that the existence in the curriculum of a broad background course actually aids specialization of the type required for examinations (although the opposite is often thought to be the case). For example, one school that has consistently good results in History in the School Certificate examination puts its success down to the fact that History is taught as Social Studies up to the fourth form, after which the course is gradually switched on to the examination syllabus. The broad basis that has been laid before the concentrated course is undertaken serves to teach young people to think logically in terms of causes, effects, and relationships and thereby prepares them to use the material of History more effectively than they were able to do when the whole course was limited by a formalized chronological framework. In Australia, Social Studies have been especially valued as the means of supplying a humanities course in the Technical schools.

But usefulness of this kind is only one of the advantages of a Social Studies course. It has an especially valuable function in covering the individual's need for "identification," to borrow a word from industrial education. Progressive sections of industry are finding that efficiency and happiness at work are greatly increased if every worker knows about the industry in which he is working and the contribution it makes to the national economy, and also about the part he plays in his factory and his relations with other personnel. Promoting such awareness is what some Education Officers call "educa-

tion for identification"—i.e. revealing to every worker his relations to his factory (personal and productive), the factory's relation to the industry concerned, and the relation of the industry to the national economy. Education for identification thus serves to show a man where he is and why he matters. A modern Social Studies course does much the same thing for young people; it reveals to them facts and relationships that enable them to identify themselves with the labours, achievements, and adventures of mankind.

A Social Studies course, therefore, while it absorbs the time and much of the subject matter formerly allotted to History, Geography and Civics, does not limit itself to the fields formally covered by these "subjects." The outlook is essentially broad and exploratory, and the course is broken up into a series of correlated units of study rather than conducted as a rigid sequence of lessons. It thus offers endless opportunities for active learning; for relating the lesson to contemporary events; for co-operative study by the form as a group. This active study in its turn encourages the child to search for himself into the material being studied—whether the centre of interest of a unit of study be *Local Industry*, *Elizabethan Dress*, *the History of Whaling*, or what you will—and thereby develops a self-reliant attitude to study. One of the great values of a Social Studies course is that it promotes intellectual adventurousness.

This broad approach to Social Studies is thus set out in *Social Studies for Schools*, by the Social Studies Committee of the Schools Board, Victoria.¹ As Australia has already carried through much pioneering work

¹ Published by the Melbourne University Press.

developing Social Studies in secondary schools, the statement has the weight of considerable experience behind it :

"What we study in Social Studies is the life of man in some particular place at some particular time, and we use every possible 'subject' to help us understand his problems and how he dealt, or deals, with them. The main aim is to give a better understanding of present problems. We are attempting to give our future citizens some true understanding of the development of mankind. We are trying to trace with the children the fascinating story of how man has developed through the ages, of how man has studied to use and control his environment and how his life has been influenced by this, of how our institutions have grown out of the past and should therefore be respected, and of how they have undergone many changes to meet changing needs and must undergo many more from time to time. Man's struggle with his environment yesterday and today, man's use or misuse of his powers and resources, his development, the essential unity of civilization, these are the main themes of Social Studies. We are trying to break the habit of putting knowledge into water-tight compartments labelled, History, Geography, English, Economics. We are also trying to train children in the habit of thinking clearly, to be able to use all the knowledge at their command to solve problems, and to be able to find the necessary information."

A Sample Project

In order to give the reader who is new to Social Studies a concrete example of how things work out in practice, it may be helpful, before we go any further, to outline a typical Social Studies project carried out recently with the local Civic Week as the starting-point :

"OUR TOWN"

1. History of our town.
2. Great men and women of our town.
3. Growth of our town, illustrated by three large-scale maps from different historical periods produced as wall charts.
4. Our town goes to work : a study of local industries and occupations, both past and present.
5. Our town at play : a study of the facilities for recreation past and present.
6. Social services in our town.
7. How our town is governed.
8. Paying for our town.

The project took a month to complete with four periods a week devoted to it ; the work being divided up, according to interest and ability, among small groups of children each in charge of a leader. The teacher acted as guide and co-ordinator. Visits to places of interest were arranged during the course and the Town Clerk spoke to the children on Local Government. Each group, as well as collecting information, was responsible for making a wall chart, and these home-produced visual aids, plus verbal reports, enabled the groups to share with each other the information which each had collected. Smaller editions of the wall charts were bound together as a form reference book. This book, when completed, was shown to the Head who, in her turn, sent it to the Chairman of the Education Committee for his perusal. As a result the form was congratulated upon its achievement by the Head at assembly and received a letter of appreciation from the Chairman which was carefully preserved—after a period on the notice-board—in the form log book.

This project aroused great interest. It was found that the children were prepared to do a good deal of the work

involved in their own time ; not only in the evenings, but also during odd moments between lessons and when a games period turned out wet.

Incidentally, this course was also used as the focal point for work in other subjects. The art teacher gave help with the wall charts, an English lesson was given up to the study of local writers, and some maths. periods were devoted to local finance, and health and population statistics.

A Statement of Objectives

A list of objectives is set out in some detail at the conclusion of this chapter. But it may be of interest to read, as a preliminary statement, the summary of objectives of a Social Studies course as given on p. 72 of the *Report on Secondary Education* of the Advisory Council on Education in Scotland :¹

- “(1) To satisfy natural curiosity, quicken imagination and help the child to build up individual interests. In the process, he would incidentally acquire some store of facts, not systematized but having the ‘ cues and feelers ’ that attach to what has been learned in living associations.
- “(2) To foster generous and desirable attitudes of mind towards persons and things.
- “(3) To give the child a growing sense of belonging to a place and to a community.”

The Educational Value of Social Studies

This book will primarily be devoted to Social Studies in practice, but, if the practice is to be sound, the theo-

¹ H.M.S.O. Cmd. 7005.

retical basis should be understood. Some educational advantages of Social Studies have already been mentioned, but there are a number of important factors that are somewhat less obvious. The remainder of this chapter is therefore given to a summary of the reasons why the development of Social Studies in our schools is not only desirable but urgently necessary if our young people are to be properly prepared for full personal life, if this country is to be provided with a sufficient proportion of self-reliant, participant, mature citizens to make her survival as a prosperous nation a practical possibility and if world-mindedness is to be developed.

I. THE SOURCE OF SOCIAL LEARNING

During the last fifty years the centre of gravity of a child's education has been shifting from the home to the school. All young creatures learn a great deal by imitating the behaviour of the mature members of their group. We all master the art of speech that way, an accomplishment possible even to those with an I.Q. as low as 50. Imitation is, in fact, the most natural and most satisfactory way of acquiring much of the essential equipment of competent adulthood.

Consequently, when the home was the scene of rich and varied activity it was an extremely efficient school for life. The father would be master of a score of skills and the mother of as many more, and the children of the home, in their eagerness to be recognized as adult, and in their efforts to surpass each other in attainment, would diligently set themselves to master the skills and crafts of the adult world. Nor was such learning limited to the home itself. The community within which the home existed would offer tempting examples of other

skills. The smithy, the wheelwright's yard, the carpenter's shop, would each have its cluster of youngsters watching the work going on, and occasionally being favoured with a chance to lend a hand.

In fact, living *was* learning in those days. Moreover, attainment received its immediate reward of social recognition and approval. Thus, by the time a youngster was twelve or fourteen, he had, without any formal teaching, and of his own curiosity, initiative, and desire to be adult, equipped himself with many recognized skills. He had won a niche for himself in the community and had learnt something about the inter-personal relationships of his group. He had also absorbed a good deal of general understanding by mixing with the adults of the community and listening to their conversations. He had, in fact, acquired enough background to give him a thorough awareness of the relationship existing between himself and his environment and enough skill to promote an assured sense of self-reliance. Even the sons of the wealthy, although they went to school to "get learning," acquired skill in living from their home-centred activities. Formal schooling was an embellishment rather than a necessity. It was the way to become a man of letters; it was not essential in order to become a man.

Contrast the sorry plight of the average town child today! Father, once the all-knowing master of many things, now disappears to a mysterious elsewhere called "work," which is something he has to go away to do in a place where the child is unable to follow and watch. Food and clothes are bought, not made. Public transport replaces your own or your friend's horse and cart. There is very little left to watch that a child can copy and learn by copying. In place of a rich variety of activities in, around, and between homes there is a dull, stereotyped

conformity. The family grows up relatively unaware of its relationship to society; and the child—often an only one or at least a member of a small family—is a wanderer in a waste land where, apart from a few friends and neighbours, all men are almost strangers to each other. Fun and excitement, formerly concentrated within the community life, are now focused outside the home, on cinema and racing, professional games, and radio entertainment. The home, in fact, has ceased to be the all-providing nest; instead it may become little more than a shared dwelling. Thus the child is deprived of the means to a social education through imitation at home. If, therefore, he is given only a course of unrelated subjects at school, he may learn quite a lot but he will grow up ignorant all the same, and devoid of those qualities of character which can only develop out of belonging to your community in the truly functional relationship of drawing upon the community life and also making a personal contribution to it.

It is this shift of gravity that has put the modern child at such an educational disadvantage, and which places such a greatly increased responsibility upon the schools, since they now have to provide a total education to meet, in whole or in part, *all* the needs of the child—for knowledge, for background, for standards, for awareness, for skill, for understanding, for culture, for making a contribution, for a sense of belonging, for attitudes, for a proper orientation to the modern world. No small order! Nor can it be met by the inculcation of subjects, however well taught. Breaking up all schooling into subject-fields did well enough when the home was a real centre of social learning that provided all the necessary background; it will not suffice today. A curriculum that lacks an integrating core of social education is therefore doing

only half its job; in fact less than half, because a broad background of understanding is the prerequisite to success in subject-fields. Through Social Studies it becomes possible to provide a planned substitute for the social education that is no longer available for the average child. The home has still, of course, a vitally important part to play, but, because it has changed in form, it needs the help of the school much more than it used to if it is to function efficiently. Social Studies provide precisely the help it needs.

It must also be observed that an inadequate social education does not only have detrimental educational effects in the narrower sense. Social awareness has a powerful moral influence. Any child lacking it will be more vulnerable to aggressive anti-social influences. To quote a successful club warden who was previously a probation officer:

"There is not enough social content put into the education of our children. The foundation of training for living in a democratic community is not well laid at school. The school is too remote from citizenship."¹

This warden finds that it takes him two years to develop in the young entrants to the club a grasp of what self-government means, and to bring home to them the nature of "discipline which rests on co-operation." Until the new attitude has been developed, petty thieving is always likely to occur.

All subjects can be used to develop social awareness and responsibility by including whatever social content is appropriate to them. But the effects will be relatively patchy and scrappy unless all the partial contributions are unified within a course specifically designed to build up the social understanding of the child.

¹ *Probationer*, May 1942.

2. THE RELATIVITY OF LEARNING

To offer a child nothing for study but material confined in narrow bookish subjects, and following rigidly a prearranged sequence of presentation, falsifies the nature of truth for him. He gets the idea that every fact set out in print is exactly correct and that knowledge is a completed process—a collection of exact facts that teachers and people who write books know but which children do not. The child not only loses heart at the thought of having to catch up on such omniscience, but he also acquires that blind faith in what appears in print which is so ably exploited in the modern world by the propagandist, columnist, and advertiser.

The relative nature of much human knowledge can be conveyed to the child through any subject which is carefully taught with that end in view; but the exploratory learning and flexibility of approach that a Social Studies course makes possible bring home this important lesson decisively through constant experience. The child learns that neither teachers nor books are infallible; that truth is a prize to be sought diligently; and that learning is a continuous adventure in which he too can share.

3. COMPETENCE IN TACKLING PROBLEMS

Closely related to the last point is the development of initiative and responsibility. A child overdosed with factual material tends to think that every problem has its cut-and-dried solution somewhere in a book. Apprentice supervisors complain bitterly about this tendency even in their Grade One lads. "They are too spoon-fed" a supervisor in an engineering factory complained recently. "They expect every problem to have a ready-made solution tucked away somewhere." A child who has had a

training in Social Studies projects is, in contrast, found to be self-reliant in searching for solutions to a problem. And this self-dependence tends naturally to go with a heightened sense of responsibility. It is only if a young person believes in his capacity to do things that he can recognize that he has a personal responsibility in a situation. Of course a boy who is congenitally dull will not, by the experience of participating in a Social Studies course, be able to surpass his native intelligence. But the tragedy of the secondary-school child who has had his knowledge too much spoon-fed to him is that he has been conditioned to behave passively in the face of problems which a more active approach would enable him to master.

4. TRAINING IN CO-OPERATIVE WORK

The majority of school children today never learn to co-operate at work. During lessons they are struggling for personal attainment, often in competition for marks with their fellows. It is only on the playing-fields or in out-of-school activities that they are given training in teamwork. It is not surprising, therefore, that adult people are often found to adopt an individualist business-is-business relationship with their fellows in their working lives, keeping the co-operative side of their natures in cold storage for use in their domestic and leisure-time relationships.

Such a dualism was appropriate enough to a past stage of society, when it was believed that the general well-being was best served by a vigorous self-seeking on the part of every individual. But today the need for co-operation in work relationships is obvious; the very survival of the nation depends upon its increase.

A certain amount of school work must be individualist

if special aptitudes and abilities are to be given their chance, but Social Studies, because they lend themselves to co-operative work, provide the necessary corrective. Suppose, for instance, that the ever-popular project, *The History of Transport*, is being handled by a form of thirteen-year-old children. One group may be busy making a wall chart to show développement from the earliest road carriages to the streamlined motor-car; another will perhaps be compiling a scrap book to illustrate the history of shipping; a third may be studying road-making; and a fourth finding out about the inventors whose ideas helped to produce speedy modern transport. As the project develops, each contribution comes to be valued in relation to the whole, and consequently all those who are participating learn to appreciate the advantages of co-operation. Such projects enable the individuals involved to enjoy a sense of personal attainment through group achievement—an essential lesson for the modern young citizen.

5. HELP FOR THE WEAKER BRETHREN

Social Studies prove to be of great educational value to those comparatively dull and backward children found in most form groups. Such children are inevitably at a disadvantage when a sense of achievement is directly related to mastering a narrow field of factual material. In orthodox subject-periods they find themselves left in the rear, and doomed to endure constant discouragement, since their attainment at its best makes but a sorry show in comparison with that of their fellows.

The effect of this constant experience of failure is often underestimated. A dull boy, who was sometimes so sick after breakfast that he was unable to go to school, was found to be in dread neither of his teachers, of

punishment, nor of other boys—as was at first supposed—but of history and geography periods when the teacher gave a sort of quick-fire oral test to the class. No penalties were involved—other than the loss of prestige felt by those who failed. But for this boy it was such an unendurable disgrace to have his incapacity paraded before the form that he developed genuine physical indispositions as an unconsciously motivated means of self-protection. We may be sure that for every case like this one, where crisis point is reached and the matter probed and set right, there are hundreds where the disheartening effect on dullards of having their weaknesses publicly exposed passes unobserved.

Social Studies, with their opportunities for varied treatment, active learning and co-operative endeavour, enable everyone to make a useful contribution, and so offer to those who are less favoured intellectually that minimum of socially recognized attainment without which no child can prosper at school.

From time to time one reads arguments against Social Studies based on the assumption that children must find the many-sidedness of the course confusing. The evidence, however, is all the other way. Knowledge that appears to be quite beyond the understanding of children, when taught in isolation, is sometimes readily absorbed when offered in its appropriate framework of related facts.

6. SPONTANEITY AND FLEXIBILITY

As Professor Ashby of Manchester University points out in *Challenge to Education*, we must today deliberately prepare our children to face up to insecurity and instability. The inventions and technical advances of the last fifty years have strained the adaptability of humanity

to breaking point. These changes are a foretaste of what lies in the future. Prediction is, of course, impossible; but we must nevertheless not forget, when planning the child's school experience, to keep one eye on what the shape of things to come thirty years hence is likely to be; which means that an important objective of education today must be to develop in the child such a capacity for spontaneous response and flexibility of outlook that he will have a chance, during adult life, of keeping in adjustment with the world around him. The tendency in subject teaching is inevitably to follow a prescribed syllabus in a step-by-step manner, without much regard for what is happening in the world at large. Such a pattern of study was appropriate before radio, aeroplanes, and the nuclear-fission era; and it still has its place today. But passive learning of established facts, and the pursuance of routine exercises designed to drive them home, obviously need to be counterbalanced by study focused upon exploration into the past and present problems of man, and their solution; and by exercises which stimulate spontaneity, original thought, and courage in facing new and unexpected problems. We have to convey to the child that life is a continual process of growth, not a static state of affairs, and to teach him how to participate intelligently in that process for worthwhile objectives.

The writer has recently had an opportunity of visiting some secondary schools in which the curriculum is composed entirely of formal subject courses, and others in which the curriculum is broadened by Social Studies carried on with plenty of project work. The young people in the contrasting groups of schools were observed not only to be following different kinds of curricula but also to be developing into different types of individuals with different approaches to life. The pupils in the traditional

group of schools had in general a marked tendency to be parochial in outlook, reserved, conditioned *against* change; the others, in general, were adventurous in outlook, approachable and articulate, eager to give their minds to new problems. There can be no doubt which of these young people are being the better prepared to face the future.

7. SKILL IN SELECTION

As civilization becomes more complex, and the tempo of living speeds up, the ability to select wisely from the available variety becomes increasingly necessary and increasingly difficult. Which job? How may leisure time best be employed? What experiences are most to be sought? Which books, papers, films, radio programmes, cultural activities, etc., are most worth the time they take up? Only by a constant selection in terms of standards and purposes can the surrounding confusion of opportunities be reduced to pattern and order in personal and co-operative life.

In fact, life today for everyone is, to a greater or less degree, a process of discriminating selection. If we lack skill in this, our lives in both private and public sectors become, at best, a hopeless attempt to meet all demands with only twenty-four hours to the day, and seven days to the week, and, at worst, a meaningless jumble—a hotch-potch of “everything by starts and nothing long,” without pattern, purpose, or standards. Hence the great need today for training the young in capacity to discriminate and select.

Yet the traditional curriculum does little or nothing to bring home to young people that successful living is a process of discriminating selection, and that there can be no such wise selection without clarity of standards. Social

Studies, however, provide constant practice in discrimination and selection for both teachers and pupils. The course constantly calls for decisions on what should be tackled in detail and what need only be touched on; and also on what are the "musts," what the "if possibles," and what may be omitted without loss. Frequently the form as a group will be brought up against the need to select between study units, all of which seem equally desirable, but which cannot all be undertaken. In order to make such choices, standards of judgment and clarity of purpose become a necessity. Values cease to be seen by the young as distant, intangible interests of the adult world, but come to be understood and appreciated as essential guides to effective living. The fact that wise choice demands discipline is also brought home.

The training thus provided is the more successful because the problem of how to select wisely presses upon young people in their private lives far more than many think. The claims of home, school, and personal interests often clash with each other, especially during adolescence. In this particular matter then, as in others, the Social Studies course is able to offer young people what has for them immediate relevance and value.

8. GENERAL AND SPECIAL EDUCATION

A Social Studies course is still too often considered as a specialist study alternative to History, Geography and Civics. In other words, a tendency is to be observed—especially in some of the syllabuses that have been drawn up—to treat Social Studies as a subject with a defined *content* instead of as a course with a specific educational *function*—to provide breadth as distinct from depth and height. It is important to grasp that the provision of breadth—the factor now recognized as being seriously

deficient in education today at all post-primary stages—is the *primary* function of Social Studies. The course is therefore designed to meet the needs of men and women as people and citizens rather than as specialists. “Taken as a whole,” we read on page 4 of the Harvard Report, *General Education in a Free Society*,¹ “education seeks to do two things: help young persons fulfil the unique, particular functions in life which it is in them to fulfil, and fit them as far as it can for those common spheres which, as citizens and heirs of a joint culture, they will share with others.” Specialism is mainly concerned with the first of these two functions; Social Studies, mainly with the second. Experience of both breadth and depth in study is necessary in a complete education. Each must be provided by the curriculum; and care taken to correlate, but not confuse, the two objectives.

We also need to be clear about the relation of basic skills to the Social Studies course. Some schools have experimented with including *all* English and *all* Mathematics within the framework of the course. This, however, may easily lead to an artificial unification. The attempt, in any case, seems to indicate a wrong approach. It is quite wrong to suppose that Social Studies should either include the *whole* of a subject or *none* of it. Since the prime purpose of Social Studies is to provide breadth—an overall integrated outline of essential common knowledge—it follows that the course should be free to draw from any subject field what is needed to complete this purpose. Thus, a Social Studies course provides an opportunity for putting all the basic skills to practical use, thereby serving to arouse interest in them and to promote mastery of them. But, to whatever extent is necessary, these skills may, in fact should, be studied independently, in just the same

¹ Prepared by the Harvard Committee and published by the Harvard University Press (1946).

way that a specialist study, while it will mainly be followed on its own, should be integrated with the pattern of general education by being rooted in the Social Studies course.

To stress the special "breadth" function of Social Studies does not imply that the course should not include detailed work. On the contrary, a Social Studies course makes constant demands for exact, conscientious research and workmanship. It is true that a broad sweeping treatment may be necessary to fill in gaps in knowledge, to demonstrate interrelations, or supply bridges between study units, but, for the most part, work will be detailed and accurate. Every study unit, is, however, treated as many-sided; and it is this purpose of portraying the complete pattern of an area of interest that distinguishes work in Social Studies from specialist study.

We begin to see, then, the sort of educational experience provided by a curriculum with a Social Studies core. The young people in their breadth course practise hand and mind together in exploring their environment and discovering their relations with it. Also, the course is "a first-rate jumping-off ground for specialist studies of all kinds because it should give a wider meaning and value and purpose to what must often be narrow and concentrated work."¹ Finally, such basic skills as English and calculation, although developed in periods devoted to them, are constantly revised and reinforced by use in the "real-life" situations provided by Social Studies.

It should be observed that this interpretation of the purpose of Social Studies does not exclude a pupil from specializing in History or Geography as well as following the Social Studies course appropriate to his age. Indeed, it is wholly desirable that a pupil should do so if his interests and aptitudes lie in that direction.

¹ *Social Studies for Schools*, p. 8 (Melbourne University Press).

9. A SENSE OF ROLE

Research into what produces the "desocialized" person in society—the isolate who is in retreat from life and his fellows, the withdrawn, apathetic, self-centred man or woman who has rejected co-operation as a way of life—has underlined the significance of a sense of personal role in the development of confidence, happiness, courage, and maturity.

This sense of role depends upon a consciousness of effective functioning within the social structure, and upon proper understanding of one's culture and personal relations. Many are cut off from their society and culture by sheer ignorance of them, and many are deprived of a sense of role by lack of sufficient experience of co-operative usefulness within a social situation. Not only do Social Studies set out to teach about the constituent organizations that combine to form the social structure, and to encourage young people to explore their own culture, but they also offer regular experience of co-operative work in which everyone has tasks to do that are socially recognized and appreciated. We see, then, that Social Studies can contribute significantly towards awakening in young people a consciousness of social role. As the evidence strongly suggests that such consciousness is the *sine qua non* of personal and social maturity, the development of a sense of role must be considered as one of the chief purposes of the Social Studies course.

10. INTERNATIONAL UNDERSTANDING

No school can be considered to be doing its job properly today unless it is *actively* promoting international understanding. This involves forming the right attitudes.

Three interrelated tendencies of human behaviour that need to be corrected before international understanding can really take root in the mass of the people are the tendency to take sides, the tendency to adopt a primitive all-or-nothing response to the challenge of problems, and the tendency to find scapegoats for unexpressed guilt and aggression. All three tendencies promote aggressive rather than constructive responses to the conflicts of ideas and interests which are an inevitable feature of all dynamic human associations. These tendencies, therefore, make for bad international relations and, ultimately, for war.

In Social Studies young people are actively engaged upon the co-operative exploration of the history and environment of mankind. They are learning that living and doing inevitably create problems, and that good solutions are not to be found by laying blame, by taking sides and fighting for mastery, or by looking upon any particular approach to a problem as "all right" or "all wrong," but by tackling a difficult situation as a whole, from as many angles as possible, and with as much co-operation as possible. They are also finding out, as day-to-day experience, that things are far more interdependent than appears on the surface, and that men and nations are indeed "members one of another." Moreover, they learn these lessons amid the give and take of a social situation created by the shared purpose and activity of the form group. This last is especially important. It is by experience within a social situation that attitudes are most easily formed or changed.

The formative learning experiences provided by Social Studies also help to get rid of frustration, aggression, and guilt feelings which, if unresolved, provide the raw material for attitudes of antagonism between peoples. Dr.

Julian Huxley, first Director-General of Unesco, had something to say on this in a paper written in 1941 :

"The problem of getting rid of undesirable repressions can be attacked by specific methods. Of these, the method of encouraging self-expression through creative activity which is both free and self-disciplined is probably the most important. Creative activity can take many forms, from play to poetry, from mud-pies to acting; it can and should be encouraged from the earliest years. It has two related but distinct functions. It may help to rid the child of haunting repressions that are inhibiting its healthy development. But expression can be normative as well as creative. It can help the child to find outlets for itself, and so avoid fresh frustrations; it can also in many cases relate the individual to larger social groups or to comprehensive ideas, thus providing channels for sublimation and helping the narrow, irrational, and unconscious emotional-ethical system of infancy to develop into the broader, more rational and more conscious system demanded by adult existence. I have no doubt that both the normative and the therapeutic possibilities of creative activity should be given a much larger part to play in our educational system."¹

We see, then, that a Social Studies course is not only concerned with the subject matter of the human struggle, thereby promoting insight about the effects of co-operation and the effects of war, but it can also provide the experiences and situations through which the attitudes and emotions of fellow feeling with others and of co-operative usefulness are built up at the expense of those making for aggression and destructiveness. Through Social Studies, therefore, the schools have an opportunity to contribute really significantly to world peace.

¹ From *Education as a Social Function*, printed in *On Living in a Revolution* (Chatto and Windus) also in *Man in the Modern World*.

SUMMARY OF THE OBJECTIVES OF SOCIAL STUDIES

1. To combine the material of History, Geography and Civics, together with relevant material from other subject fields, into a single integrated background course, through which the child can come to appreciate the interrelatedness of all the elements of his environment and to feel himself to be closely associated with the past and present struggles and achievements of mankind, and to have a personal contribution to make towards future progress.
2. To help co-ordinate the curriculum as a whole by serving as a background for specialist courses, and as a field of practice for basic skills.
3. To build up social awareness, a sense of responsibility, and an understanding of human relations, by helping to provide those elements of social education that can no longer be fully supplied by the home environment.
4. To offer abundant opportunities for active learning, personal achievement, participation in group work, and, in general, for the development of the self through the exploration of the environment.
5. To foster attitudes to knowledge, life and learning that are appropriate to the present day, and especially to promote understanding of all history and all human experience as a process of change and development.
6. To foster the development of spontaneity, self-reliance, flexibility of mind, clear thinking, tolerance, initiative, articulateness, adventurousness of outlook, courage in the face of new problems, enjoyment of creative activity, sound standards of action and appreciation, world-mindedness, a sense of purpose, and a philosophy of life.
7. To provide a pattern and experience of study that will serve as a foundation and stimulus for continuing education in adult years.

CHAPTER TWO

MOTIVATING THE ADOLESCENT

IF WE are successfully to plan and put into practice a Social Studies course, it is necessary to pay rather more attention to incentive and motivation than usually accompanies the preparation of a subject syllabus. There is only one ultimate supply of energy by the expenditure of which a child may be educated—the energy of the child's own psyche. The skill of teachers, the design of courses, the preparation of aids, the betterment of conditions and techniques—all depend for their effect upon their capacity to release, stimulate, and mobilize the dynamic powers of the young person. We must, then, make it our aim to bear in mind all the influences that motivate the adolescent in our planning of Social Studies.

Recent research has considerably modified the old conceptions about what stimulates human beings to effort and attainment. The time-honoured formula for making people work might be stated thus: "No one likes work, therefore you have to induce effort. You can drive a man by fear, or you can spur him on by offering a reward, but if you don't either prod him or tempt him he will cease to bother." That formula is, of course, to some extent true and does to some extent work; but it is far from complete. What we now know is that the reward-and-punishment approach to motivation leaves out of account some of the most powerful stimulants to purposeful activity; and that an individual whose full creative energy

has not been mobilized, because the sources of motivation have been neglected, may be running as much below par as a six-cylinder car that has four faulty sparking-plugs.

For example, industrial psychology has shown that one group of individuals, of equal ability with another and subject to the same system of rewards and penalties, will nevertheless achieve a considerably higher output if a greater interest in what they are doing is aroused in them, if they are convinced of the value of their activity, if more interest is shown in them as people, and if the human relations existing around them are improved—to mention only four motivating factors formerly disregarded. Moreover, such factors seem to have the widest application. They were found to provide the key to sound morale in the Services during the war, they influence output in industry, their application enables the Army to clear up near-illiteracy in a mere few weeks, and they are of prime importance in helping backward children to overcome their incapacity. We shall be well advised, therefore, to take such factors fully into account in planning Social Studies.

But the stick-and-carrot formula was worse than incomplete; it was also wrong-headed. Research has shown that normal human beings are not inherently lazy but naturally creative, with a great urge to do and achieve. Young people especially are eager to test themselves, and prove themselves; to win social prestige through attainment. They are not skill-shy as used to be supposed but rather are skill-hungry. Laziness and apathy, except in the sick or maladjusted, are the result of the child's discouragement or failure to appreciate the significance of some demanded effort; they should not be ascribed to native idleness. Every teacher who takes an interest in the home-life of his pupils will be familiar with cases of

young people, declared by school reports to be indolent and deficient in concentration and memory, who develop some private interest to a degree that proves them well capable of sustained effort and of memorizing detailed factual material. The further we press inquiry and research into the work-shyness of children, the more the evidence reveals young people to be by nature creative and dynamic in their approach to life.

We need then to readjust our assessment of the adolescent's nature and potentialities. We have to regard him as eager to learn and achieve, if only we can be skilful enough to tap the well-spring of his being. Those truths may often sound little short of nonsense to a teacher depressed for a time by a crowded D form, but they are truths nevertheless. All teachers have experienced "miracles" when a dull or listless boy or girl suddenly gets started and thereafter never looks back, and of cases when a bad form has become "completely changed" in a few months as the result of a new approach on the part of the staff, or some members of it. But these cases are not miracles. The intelligence of the children remains the same; the physique is the same; the surroundings are the same. What has happened is that hitherto neglected sources of motivation have been tapped; the halting engine has suddenly taken up on its idle cylinders.

Motivating Influences

It is not possible to give here a complete analysis of the complex pattern of adolescent motivation. We must be content to draw together briefly under convenient heading certain characteristics, needs, attitudes, and approaches, which have proved to be of help in arousing the mental energy and co-operative interest of the adoles-

cent. Here, as a basis, are some of the primary elements from which adolescent motivation springs :

A hungry curiosity about life.

The urge to test and extend personal capacity (skill hunger).

Love of achievement—the urge to create.

Craving for recognition.

Longing to be appreciated as a person.

Eagerness to be equipped as an adult.

Keeness to be “in the know.”

Yearning for comradeship.

Increased social awareness (desire to contribute).

Belief in a worth-while purpose.

Enjoyment of working with a chosen group towards a desired goal.

Not all these motivating factors are distinct from each other. Indeed all of them are to a greater or less extent interrelated, but the distinction between one and the other is sufficiently marked for separation to be useful.

We see at once, when we apply the test of efficiency of motivation, how it is that subject-learning, so long as it is left in isolation, often fails to arouse and hold the interest of school children. The bookish study of some past period of history, or the geography of a distant land, or setting out to analyse a poem in detail, may make an initial appeal to curiosity and the desire to be equipped as an adult. But unless the young person finds that he excels, and therefore can win recognition and prestige through the activity, the impetus of starting on fresh material will, in such cases, quickly wear off. For the majority, interest will quite soon be replaced by boredom coupled with a tame endurance, or rebelliousness—according to the temperament of the young person in question.

In contrast, the appeal of Social Studies—if offered as an amalgam of human experience, as distinct from an uneasy scrambling of two or three areas of subject-matter—is consistently high, because a large number of motivating elements are activated simultaneously. Moreover, a core of Social Studies not only itself arouses interest but also helps to spread its appeal through the curriculum by correlation with the content of such subjects as Art, Mathematics, English, Science, and Religious Instruction. Thus if, let us say, mensuration is linked to the Social Studies core through a surveying project, the chemistry of combustion through a study of power, or any other of the natural linkages occur, then the subject-fields concerned are drawn, to a greater or less extent, within the area of high motivation and gain considerably from the resulting accretion of interest. This has proved so useful in some schools that subject specialists have got into the way of depending upon Social Studies to provide the springboard for new material that is to be studied. They have found that a pupil tackles more readily what is developed in detail in specialist work if it has been “met” in Social Studies first.

Slants of Approach

In addition to being dependent upon certain basic sources of motivation, the adolescent is also helped by approaches that fit in with his temperamental make-up. The following have strong appeal for the adolescent :

The romantic.

The varied and unusual.

What stirs and feeds the imagination.

The challenging.

The altruistic.

Consequently we shall heighten the attractiveness of any material if we enrich it with romance, warmth, wonder, nobility, and vision.

Behind the often awkward and aggressive shell—the adolescent's most common defence against the threat of ridicule, failure, and misunderstanding—a timid sensitive spirit hides away among fantasies of success, dreams of glory, and hopes of a noble future for mankind. If we can help this inner world to find expression by the projection of the adolescent's hopes and yearnings into the world of reality, we shall not only be educating him in adjustment but shall gain his willing co-operation in undertaking other educational tasks. Social Studies are not unique in a capacity to promote the emotional release so necessary to an adolescent's healthy development and willing co-operation; art, English, music and drama can help a great deal too. But since a Social Studies course brings the young person's yearnings directly into relation with the struggles and achievements and aspirations of mankind, it outstandingly provides the outlet for social feeling.

Social Motivation

A young person is helped or hindered to a great extent in his school career by the social environment of the form in which he works and of the school as a whole. It is true that an adolescent loves to feel himself to be an independent personality, but he needs just as much to be conscious of belonging to a group that accepts him and in which he can trust. He needs to feel free from "interference" by those in authority over him, but at the same time he needs to know he can depend upon them for strength and guidance. He needs in fact to feel free against a secure and ordered background, and to be con-

scious of himself as a personality within a friendly group. It is relevant at this point, therefore, to consider the growth of a social form atmosphere through Social Studies and the motivating effects accruing.

Any form that has well developed group relations and an understanding teacher will go a long way towards meeting the social needs of the adolescent. However, a Social Studies course has special advantages in the building of a good atmosphere in a form. For a number of periods each week the whole form will be working in especially close co-operation with each other and with the teacher. For much of the time they will be working together productively, finding things out together, making wall charts, compiling reference books and the like. Working together on a job promotes the growth of good friendly group relationships. Thus Social Studies and the community feeling of the form help to build each other up.

Of course, projects and group study are not the monopoly of Social Studies but, if the former exist without the latter, conflict of loyalties and the clash of project with project may occur, with bad effects upon the group relations of the form. A unified curriculum and the development of a vigorous group life in the form seem to be objectives most easily attained through a core course of Social Studies.

More, however, is required by the adolescent from his social environment than good inter-personal relationships. He needs to feel safe from hurting ridicule within it (while enjoying friendly fun); to feel at liberty to experiment without being penalized for failure; and to know that help and encouragement are at hand. In all these particulars a Social Studies course is especially able to assist. Subject-learning inevitably narrows the field

for experiment; it tends to set stereotyped tasks which require stereotyped responses; and tends also to discourage those who fail to produce these responses, by promoting in them a sense of failure and inadequacy. Thus, subject-learning must often prove depressing to the young person rather than stimulating; the more specialist a subject is, the more likely is this to be the case. Social Studies, in contrast, being free from rigid bonds, can afford to welcome experiment and to be more sympathetic to failure.

It is not good education, of course, to cushion a child all the time against the less pleasant things of life. That is not meant for a moment. But we all need a social group somewhere in which we are at liberty to try ourselves out in comparative safety. For the duller child especially, home life and school life provide failure and discouragement in plenty; what he needs is an escape from them, not into retreat, but into an environment where his contribution, however small, will be welcomed; where an atmosphere of "have a go" prevails, and where failure is nothing more fearsome than a challenge to try again. "Never let the child lose heart," writes Professor Sir Cyril Burt in *The Backward Child*, "for once he has lost heart he has lost everything." Social Studies, combined with the form atmosphere they help to create, guarantee children against the black despair and discouragement to which far too many are subjected today by a curriculum that rarely lets up on the inculcation and testing of bookish learning. The bright child also benefits from the chance to unfetter his mind among the limitless possibilities offered by Social Studies, while at the same time enjoying the team spirit and comradeship of group work.

Shaping Social Studies Material

We now begin to see the general pattern of motivation fairly clearly. From this we may deduce guiding principles for the planning of Social Studies.

1. The matter of the course should be sufficiently closely linked to the experience of the young people to make it seem to be really their concern.
2. The course should be sufficiently varied and stimulating in presentation and content to arouse the interest of young people.
3. The course should be constantly adding to the knowledge and skills for living that the young people themselves feel to be important.
4. It should offer abundant opportunities for both personal and group achievement.
5. It should offer opportunities to create and to contribute suitable for different types and levels of ability.
6. It should encourage experiment and challenge young people to be adventurous.
7. It should aim to satisfy the unspoken yearnings and aspirations of the adolescent.
8. It should provide exercise for faculties and abilities in forms that are enjoyable to young people.

Motivating Techniques

As well as designing the course so that it is in harmony with the forces motivating the adolescent, we may further increase its impact by the use of certain techniques that prove to be very effective in arousing and maintaining interest. They are not original, but are perhaps worth setting out here in case readers are not familiar with some or all of them. The list is not complete.

THE TOPICAL PEG

Whatever the adult world is talking about—whatever is in the headlines—always makes a good jumping-off place for a unit of study whether it is in lecture form, project form, research form, discussion form, or a combination of two or three of them. Topical material is doubly attractive to the adolescent: it is happening now, and it carries the prestige of adult interest. There is as a rule no difficulty in finding a starting-point in the news for almost any study unit that could be devised. Sometimes the intrinsic importance of a news item warrants the building of a study unit upon it.

CONTRAST OF THEN AND NOW; NEAR AND FAR

Young people are interested in their own locality and this fact can be used to motivate them, but the mistake is sometimes made of supposing that children—especially young ones and dull ones—are *only* interested in their own locality. The truth is that children are interested in their locality because it is homely, but they are also interested in the far-off because it is strange and romantic. It is well known, for example, that small children are intrigued by the life of prehistoric man as well as by what is going on down the street.

If material is handled in such a way that both sources of interest are tapped, motivation is likely to be most satisfactory. We can easily succeed in this by comparing how things are now with how things were then; by contrasting what man does now with what he used to do. By swinging to and fro from past to present and back again, a high level of interest can be maintained throughout. This technique makes history more personal; the child sees that, say, the Elizabethan Poor Law did after

all have some bearing upon his own life and that of his family.

Similarly the near-far contrast can be used to promote and maintain interest. Young people are much more interested in local sociological material if it is constantly compared with ways of life elsewhere. For example, a form can combine the understanding of the function of courtesy in modern society with a great deal of historical, geographical and sociological material by an inquiry into *What are Good Manners?* This starts the form on an investigation of some of the social taboos of contemporary native cultures, as well as on a search for the origins of the contemporary rules of correct deportment, thus bringing in simultaneously both time and place relationships.

Or again, a study of *War and Aggressiveness*, as well as covering the great conquests of history in comparison with the Nazi attempt at world domination, might usefully include a survey of aggressive and non-aggressive animals, and some of Margaret Mead's delightful material on aggressive and non-aggressive primitive societies of the present day. As a tit-bit for the sluggish, one would of course include in this the fact that the first penguins ever encountered by man just stood and waited to be hit on the head because they had never learnt what it was to have an enemy. All teachers use contrasts to make their points, but contrast as a method of covering whole fields of material is less common.

THE EVOLUTIONARY APPROACH

Children are interested and held by all material studied as a process of development. The evolutionary approach makes an adventure story of everything. Here again, backward children are found to be stimulated by the approach, and it is safe to assume that what will

arouse relatively apathetic children may be extremely motivating to the more able. A fact as a fact may seem "dry" to a child because it lacks meaning considered in isolation, or in lifeless sequence. But a link in a chain of events is never dry if the child sees himself at the end of that chain, alive in the modern world. Moreover the evolutionary approach to study has the attraction of showing how the past and present are related to the future; it presages the shape of things to come, which is always exciting to those on the threshold of life.

STRIKING RELATIONSHIPS

Unusual relationships are stimulating because the mind is prompted to search for the chain of cause and effect. Consider for example the statement: "We lost our football match last Saturday because Japan conquered Manchuria." Young people are intrigued by such an odd relationship and in working it out a great deal is to be learnt. The outline sequence of cause and effect might run thus: successful invasion of Manchuria—rapid ascendancy of Japanese fascism—overrunning of rubber plantations during war—shortage of natural rubber—use of reclaimed rubber for football bladders—inferior elasticity of reclaimed rubber—bursting of the football on Saturday when the school really looked like scoring at last! That example dates back to 1946. It is important, of course, to find relevant contemporary events.

Such a series of relationships is fairly straightforward. When the idea of the interrelatedness of all experience really gets home, the thought of the young people may be challenged by more involved sequences. Striking relationships may be used either as background for a lesson given by the teachers or as an exercise for the pupils.

Some teachers believe that the study of relationships

can only be attempted by the brighter children. But a schoolmaster who has for some time been experimenting with methods of getting geographical material across to backward children finds that the material is better understood and longer retained if it is offered as a pattern of interrelated facts.

PERSONALIZATION AND PROJECTION

The motivating effect of making History and Geography personal is not always properly understood. In the Primary school the error has sometimes been made of presenting *all* History or *all* Geography through the life and adventures of a small boy, whereas, at times, young Johnnie may be much more interested in the person of a great warrior, explorer, or king than in the equivalent of himself in the setting concerned.

Indeed motivation through personalization is a good deal more complicated than at first sight appears. To bring History and Geography to life by personalizing their subject-matter is itself of value because it relates the experience of the learner to the field of study through a common bond of humanity. But the use of a character as a focus of interest, whether it be true or fictional, has more than one purpose to serve. A child or young person is interested in the lot of young people like himself in other times and places, but his interest can be awakened by at least two other images besides his self-image. Characters who satisfy the hero-worshipping tendencies of adolescents are sure to appeal. But another type whose appeal may well be stronger is the figure representing the triumph of human weakness over apparently insuperable obstacles. In the first of these three personalizations the adolescent sees himself, the second represents the projection of his ego-ideal, and the third the projection of his

own sense of impotence and weakness (and his own longing for the assurance that he will triumph over them). Many other projected personalizations have direct appeal to the adolescent, such as the father ideal, the mother ideal, the ideal of the perfect friend and the sweetheart ideal.

Adolescents are intensely interested in people as people, and in the human adventure as the human adventure, but if to this appeal we can add the projection of self into great figures from the pageant of mankind, we shall illuminate the material which is being dealt with, enrich the young person's learning experience, and produce a high degree of motivation for whatever study is afoot.

THE PROBLEM APPROACH

Anyone who doubts the virtues of problem approach to study material—i.e. breaking it up into specific problems to be solved—should try the experiment of saying to almost any adolescent about almost any difficulty one may have: "I've got something here that's puzzling me, and I think you could probably help me out. Would you?" Such an approach presents the challenge of a problem and also gives to the young person the prestige of being thought capable of dealing with it. He is at once agog to give of his best.

Much of Social Studies enables the problem approach to be used effectively. For example, the Industrial Revolution with all its historical, geographical and social ramifications may be presented as either a set of facts, or as a series of interrelated problems. Of the two approaches the latter is likely to prove the more productive of thought and interest. "How was society to adjust itself to the coming of the machine?" "How were the unemployed to feed themselves?" "Where could fresh markets be

found?" "How should the employers act?" "How were the landowners to adapt themselves to the new situation?" Learning tackled this way is at once humanized because a problem implies people in difficulties—an experience, common to all, that the adolescent can well understand and feel at one with. It also offers the stimulus of a challenge. Finally, it serves to relate events to each other in a logical way. Many school history books sin woefully in telling of actions and events without making it at all plain what were the human problems that produced them. It is a mistake that can be avoided with great advantage in teaching Social Studies.

Should School be Fun?

Perhaps it had better be categorically stated at this point that the function of Social Studies is to *teach* and not to entertain, although both pupils and teachers do find Social Studies absorbing. "I can never get them home," one Headmistress commented, shortly after her school had embarked upon a course.

It would not be necessary to stress the solid educational worth of the methods and content of Social Studies if there did not exist in some quarters a certain misconception about what a "child-centred education" really means. It appears to be sometimes thought that so long as the children are busy and happy the school is doing its job and the highest possible educational objective is being achieved. It is true that if a school is doing its job the children *will* be busy and happy; but the converse is not necessarily the case. The opposite misconception is, of course, equally prevalent—that children are only learning when they have their noses glumly down to it. Whereas, in the words of Sir Cyril Burt, "If, in the hope of disciplining the youthful mind, we make its tasks distasteful,

the unpleasant associations are likely to linger on, and infect the student's subsequent attitude towards the whole of the subject taught."¹ Or, to quote Pestalozzi, "No subject is worth a sou if it destroys courage and joy."

Here are six points which will help us to preserve the balance in designing a curriculum with a Social Studies core :

1. A child *must* be taught at school all he needs to know in order to start out well-equipped for life in the modern world. His "area of competence" *must* be provided him, as person, as worker, and as citizen.
2. Facts taught in an unrelated way, and which are not put to use in life, are forgotten with such rapidity that there is little point in teaching them.
3. One of the most important functions of a school is to develop a facility to think intelligently.
4. Specialist knowledge is of more value if it is built up against a background of general understanding.
5. The experience of school life should establish the self-confidence of the child and develop his capacity to enjoy life.
6. The greatest factor in the development of mental faculties is interest.²

In supplementation of which we may usefully give three quotations from *Total Education* by M. L. Jacks, Director, Education Department, Oxford University.

"We have paid excessive attention to *what* a child learns and too little attention to *how* he learns, though it is the latter quite as much as the former which determines his development as a human being." (Page 72)

"If we can so devise our curricula from beginning to end that they enable those who follow them to see life

¹ Universities Quarterly, May 1947.

² Point 6 is a quotation, Alfred Adler's *What Life Should Mean to You*.

steadily and see it whole, to enter upon their work with a sense of its social significance and with undivided minds, to develop worth-while leisure-time pursuits out of the subjects they have studied in the class-room (rather than any specific education for leisure), and to correlate their work and their recreation and their cultural interests in a significant whole, we shall take an important step towards the total education at a high standard of a whole generation." (Page 74)

"The Headmaster of a Modern school tells me that his main difficulty lies not with the A stream nor with the C stream, the backward children, but with that solid mass in the middle which seems often so inert and so immobile: and the only solution of his difficulty is by patient exploration to find something, be it never so trivial, in which each boy or girl can experience a sense of achievement: from that moment the attitude to all the subjects and activities changes, and there is general progress along the whole line. The secret probably lies in the discovery which the child makes that he has a self and that it is a self which he can respect: he feels that *he counts*." (Page 59)

If we take this material together we may deduce that, whereas good education should indeed be "fun" (because fun is the name we give to the joy and pleasure arising from spontaneous effective functioning), nevertheless, if we seek to make learning fun as an objective in itself, we shall succeed in creating neither good education nor real enjoyment. Learning to live, achievement, exploration, the advance to maturity—these are what the child will most enjoy.

It is in an education planned to prepare whole people for abundant living, both as individuals and as social beings, that a Social Studies course has a place. Its

efficiency should be measured by the extent to which it motivates the whole child in the exciting business of learning to live, and by its success in providing width of knowledge and understanding. Depth and height—the experience of mastering a subject in a detailed way—are also educationally important; but it is the function of the specialist courses to provide this.

SUMMARY OF CHAPTER TWO

1. The only basic source of energy with which we may achieve our educational objective is the energy of the young person's own psyche.
2. The extent to which this energy is available for educational purposes depends upon the successful motivation of the child.
3. The reward-and-punishment system of motivation has been shown to be relatively inefficient by modern psychological research.
4. To arouse the mental energy and co-operative capacity of the adolescent one must build on the needs, interests, attitudes, yearnings, and aspirations of the adolescent; linking the whole to an immediate objective which is meaningful to the adolescent.
5. The adolescent can be further motivated by (a) a good social atmosphere in the form of happy inter-personal relationships in the school as a whole; (b) the use of stimulating techniques of teaching.
6. Merely to keep young people happily occupied in school is not sufficient. The learning experience must be significant as well as interesting and the requisite skills for life in the modern world must be taught.
7. The "how" of education is as important as the "what" in the development of a mature human being.
8. The function of Social Studies is to provide breadth rather than depth; to provide depth and height is the function of correlated specialist courses.

CHAPTER THREE

INITIAL PLANNING

WE HAVE now to consider more specifically the content of the Social Studies course, together with certain queries and problems likely to arise in the initial stages.¹

Shaping the Syllabus

There are three pitfalls which we have to take care to avoid in preparing a Social Studies syllabus. The first is overcrowding. When we set out all the knowledge about the world, man, and society which it is desirable that a young person should be familiar with as background—a formidable list as we shall see—the temptation is to sort it all out into as attractive a course as possible and then to carry on and teach it in its entirety, hoping that enough will stick to fulfil our purpose. This response to the task before us is to forget the first principle of all sound nutrition—that a little food carefully chewed, well digested, and properly absorbed is better than bolting bulky meals that distend the stomach and in the end ruin both appetite and digestion.² It also overlooks Mr. Jack's point that the "how" of study is just as educational as the "what."

¹ Readers unfamiliar with the broad approach to Social Studies may find parts of the present chapter difficult to follow; subsequent chapters, however, should clear up any points not immediately understood.

² It may not be out of place to remind readers that the word "Education" is derived not from *educere* = to draw out, as is often stated to be the case, but from *educare* = to nourish.

The second likely error is the converse of the first—it is to make the course so diffuse that in the end it adds up to nothing at all and, instead of integrating the educational experience of the child, creates a greater degree of confusion.

Rigidity is a third possible mistake. If the teacher is too much concerned with completing the syllabus in a set time, the error may easily be made of divorcing the course from experience—the great danger of orthodox teaching—and of destroying the natural growth of curiosity and intellectual vitality.

Some children pass through school without ever enjoying the satisfaction of study because they are constantly hurried from one period to the next, one part of the syllabus to the next, at too great a speed for them to gain anything but bewilderment and frustration from the experience. Social Studies must at all costs avoid such disintegrating haste. When the form gets really absorbed by a unit of study, it is obviously more educational to let the young students have their heads, even if the unit overruns its time, than to cut short their full flood of enthusiasm. Every unit of study has its natural tempo for a particular form. We should follow this, neither restricting it nor extending it artificially, even if it means the sacrifice of paper plans. In other words, a Social Studies syllabus should be an outline pattern which teacher and pupils elaborate as they go along, not a completed blueprint. The syllabus must be servant not master of the teacher and the form; a compass bearing giving direction rather than a railway-track from which there can be no exploratory deviations.

CATALOGUE OF CONTENTS

With that preliminary, let us list without embellishment

the material which our course should offer, in greater or less detail, if it is to meet the needs of a modern child for background, awareness, understanding, and orientation.

1. The pattern of the Universe.
2. The physical development of the Earth from the break away of the planets from the Sun up to the present time.
3. The evolution of life on the Earth up to the development of primitive man.
4. The development in outline of human society from prehistoric to present times. The rise and fall of civilizations. The struggles between powers. Growth towards world unity. Man as an individual and as a social being.
5. A rather fuller outline of the development of Europe, Britain, and the Commonwealth.
6. The present inhabitants of the Earth, human and otherwise; vegetation and climate; developed and undeveloped areas.
7. The resources of the Earth.
8. The evolution of farming, fishing and mining. Interrelation of farming and industry.
9. The evolution of power and lighting, transport, and communications.
10. The evolution of industry and commerce.
11. The problems of feeding, clothing, and housing mankind.
12. The history of science and medicine.
13. The study of man as artist and creator: of great lives, great inventions, great discoveries, and transforming ideas.
14. Britain and the Commonwealth in the setting of the modern world.
15. British Law, Government, Organizations, and Social Services.
16. Study of the locality and the part it plays in the national life.
17. Sources of advice and information.

18. Methods and practice of discussion and debate.
19. The values and standards of a civilized community. The ideals of freedom, tolerance, justice and abundance.
20. The way forward for mankind.

Education in Relationships

So much for our catalogue of contents; some people would subtract a few items, others add a few more, but there, by and large, it is; and pretty terrifying at that. But, of course, it is only a catalogue. To build up our background course of study units under those headings, or in that order, would be quite disastrous to our purpose. The twenty headings given are only convenient abstractions, whereas our aim is to give the child a complete, rounded understanding of his environment, how it came into being, and how he may establish relations with it, under some such comprehensive title as *The Adventure of Mankind*, or *A Londoner Looks at the World*.

Our next step, therefore, must be to shape up our crude material into meaningful patterns of reality so that the child will recognize the stuff of life in the study units we offer, for only where he sees that life is will the child be eager to go with us. In order to do this we have to strike such a balance between rigidity and diffusion that as we open window after window upon life, and show the child more and more of his world, he will become aware of a single varied landscape, not merely acquainted with an assortment of isolated picture-postcard views.

We have something to learn from film-making here. The technique of modern films is to show us sometimes the whole scene, sometimes a tiny part of it in detail; sometimes to present a head-on view, sometimes to enhance the effect by giving us the advantage of an odd angle of observation; and to cut rapidly from one to the

other so that we learn simultaneously to appreciate the whole scene and details of it. We can usefully follow a similar technique in the teaching of Social Studies. Our lessons have to be not stiffly formal and listless, like a Victorian photograph, but alert, lively, and exploratory like a well-made film.

Put most briefly our task is this. On the one hand is the child, on the other his world. Our purpose is to introduce the one to the other and make them friends, so that the child feels he is really welcome, at home, and has a participant role in the life of the world.

If we are to achieve this aim, we need to approach education from a fresh point of view. For many years educationists were fond of telling us (basing themselves on a false etymology) that education means development of what is in the child—a drawing out, not a putting in. True enough, but not the whole truth; today we see that our educational purpose should be not only to draw forth but to establish enduring relationships between the individual, his fellows, and his environment; to present reality, that is, as an intelligible pattern of interrelated elements and events.

We need to appreciate why this extension of educational purpose has become necessary. The atomization of society resulting from the rapid industrialization of recent times left man cut off, and this effect has been accentuated by the accompanying atomization of learning itself. Hence the curriculum and life drifted further apart. The results are to be seen today in psychiatrists' consulting-rooms which are full of isolates—perhaps we might call them social illiterates—who are afraid of life and their fellow men. These people are afraid and withdrawn (or sometimes aggressive, shaping up belligerently to what they suspect threatens them) because they have

never forged any links between themselves and their environment. They do not understand their environment, and what is not understood is always terrifying. For everyone whose maladjustment reaches the intensity of neurosis that has to be treated, there are thousands who live out their lives dwarfed in spirit and capacity because their personalities have never made sufficient contact with the real world around them for full and happy functioning to be possible for them. Everyone is more or less affected by the breakdown of relations between the individual and his milieu. This state of affairs has now reached a point when it is clear that a remedy cannot be found without full assistance from education.

To accept that educational responsibility is to accept that we have reached a new stage in education. The original function of education was believed to be to impart knowledge—to graft on learning by force, fear or any other means to hand. The second stage was reached when the objective stressed was that of developing personality—which carried the corollary that methods which disregarded the child's personality were uneducational. We have now reached a further stage, when our objective must be simultaneously to develop the child as a person, and his relationship with his social and material environment. We aim to train not only the isolated qualities of the individual mind, but also social apprehensions and capacities. Not man, but man-in-community must be the object of our educational endeavour. This new function of education calls for a new approach to both the child and to the material we teach. Thus, the education of a man today is not to be measured by reproducible learning—though that is useful; nor only by the completeness with which aptitudes have been developed—wholly desirable as that is—but by width of understand-

ing, and capacity for adjustment, poise, and self-realization within the complexity of modern society and the rapid flux and change of the modern world. In designing a Social Studies course, therefore, we must seek not only to impart information and develop aptitudes, but so to shape, slant, and order our material that, by giving insight into the way things are, we arouse in the young people a consciousness of those relationships by which the individual personality is indissolubly united with the world of men and objects, and through which sustenance may be drawn for the continuing mental, spiritual, and social growth of the personality.

A CATALOGUE OF RELATIONSHIPS

Let us, therefore, set out our catalogue of contents in a more functional pattern—in terms of relationships. Here, then, in such terms is a list of what the modern child *needs* to study and apprehend. To what extent the whole need can be met will be considered later. This catalogue is no more than our previous table of contents with the items more nearly in the form—though not necessarily in the order—in which they should be studied.

The Pupil's Relationship with his Locality

The immediate locality : Its past history including lives of famous local people; its present life; the way it is governed and financed; its contribution to the national life; parliamentary constituency divisions.

The nearest town (if the school is not in a town).

The nearest major town (population not less than two hundred and fifty thousand).

The local (or nearest) agricultural area, and the relation between agriculture and industry.

The geographical region as a whole, along the lines of locality study, but in rather less detail.

The Pupil's Relationship with his Country

The development of the country and its culture from earliest times to the present.

The resources of the country.

The government and the legal system of the country.

The social services.

Selection from lives of its great men.

The industries of the country. Intercommunication.

The contributions of the country to the advance of mankind.

The relations of the country to the Commonwealth, Europe, and the rest of the world.

The Pupil's Relationship with Civilization

Primitive societies past and present.

The peoples of the world.

The resources of the world.

The rise and fall of civilizations, cultures and powers; and the contribution each has made to the advance of mankind.

The present division of power and resources in the world.

The nearest seaport and its trade.

The trade of the nation as a whole.

World trade.

The advance towards world unification and the problem of preserving peace.

The great civilizing ideas and how they have been interpreted.

The virtues of co-operation.

The potential world of plenty.

The Pupil's Relationship with the Stream of Life

The earliest forms of life.

The evolution of plants, reptiles, fishes, insects, birds mammals, etc.

The first man.

The existing spread of flora, fauna, etc., over the earth.

The life of inland waters and the sea.

Comparison of man with other primates.

Animal and insect societies.

Gregarious and segregated animal life.

The way animals defend themselves and are adapted to their environment.

Disease in plants, animals and man.

The arts of domestication and cultivation.

Fertile and infertile areas of the globe.

The effects of soil, rainfall, temperature, and climate upon fertility.

Possibilities of reclaiming infertile areas.

Man's debt to other living creatures.

Man as the spearpoint of evolution; as both its result and its implement.

The Earth's Relationship with the Universe

The spiral nebulae and star systems of the universe.

The sun in relation to the Galactic system.

The formation of the Earth and planets.

The break away of the moon.

Gravitation and the movements of heavenly bodies.

Motions of sun, moon, Earth and planets.

The elements of matter.

The Relationship between Civilization and the Material World

The cooling of the Earth.

The formation and drift of land masses.

The seas, lakes and waterways and the cycle of irrigation.

The conditions necessary to life; and the basic chemistry of life.

The conditions necessary for the survival of man.

The physical reasons underlying the rise of early civilizations.

The relation between the power of nations today and their material resources.

The Pupil's Relationship with the Adventure of Mankind

The evolution of farming, fishing and mining.

The evolution of power and lighting, transport and communications.

The conquest of sea and air.

The exploration of the globe.

The evolution of industry and commerce.

The history of science and medicine.

Great inventions, great discoveries and transforming ideas.

Man's achievement as a creative artist.

The problems of housing, clothing and feeding mankind.

The struggle for justice and freedom.

The problems of the world today.

The tasks and possibilities of the future.

The Pupil's Relationship with his Fellow Men

The evolution of speech.

The advantages and obligations of social living.

Developing powers of reasoning and communication.

Art, music, drama, and dancing as special means of communication.

Films and radio.

Politics and propaganda and the press.

The correct procedures of discussion, debate and voting.

Trade unionism.

Getting on with others.

Family life.

Good manners.

Sources of advice and information.

The ideals of democracy, freedom, and justice.

The essential values of decent community life.

Crime and anti-social behaviour.

The Pupil's Relationship with Time and Eternity

The position of the school in space and time.

The astronomical time-scale.

The terrestrial time-scale.

The biological time-scale.

The time-scale of man's evolution.

The time-scale of recorded history.

The personal time-scale.

The changing tempo of change.

Man's attempts to understand the Infinite.

Points of Practice

At first sight it may appear that we have now converted a difficult task into an impossible one. But that seems to be the case only so long as we think in terms of subject teaching and "getting them to remember it" for reproduction. If we bear in mind that our purpose in planning and presenting courses, study units, etc., is to *do* something to our pupils, in the way that reading a good book or seeing a good play changes us, although we may be able to reproduce very little of it, then things begin to look a good deal simpler. The truth is that the pattern of relationships set out above can be conveyed to a form of twelve-year-olds—admittedly in barest outline, but so that they "have the feel of it"—in half a dozen periods; or it can be studied for a lifetime by the most learned among us and still left barely started. Our syllabus will in practice be offered somewhere between those two extremes of study according to whether we are planning a four years' course, a two or three years' course prior to specialization, or a course for "the extra year."

Another initial cause of apprehension may be the feeling that no one short of a multiple graduate dare cope with such a comprehensive syllabus. This again is to look

at the problem in the wrong way. The job of the teacher of Social Studies is to see that the pupil is brought into contact with the requisite background material and understands the relationships involved. This does not imply that the teacher has to know it all and teach it all. The Social Studies teacher is part teacher, part planner, and part co-ordinator. As such he will incidentally be learning with his pupils at the same time as teaching them. Part of the value and appeal of Social Studies is that it is a shared adventure in learning in which the relationship of teacher to class is that of instigator, the one who encourages, guides and befriends, not that of intellectual dominator.

The problem of how to put over the content outlined in our list in the time available without overcrowding raises one or two relevant factors that must be mentioned.

1. The bulk of material is in reality somewhat less than it seems because there is a good deal of overlap and duplication of subject-matter under the different headings. This is as it should be. To bring home both facts and their relationships we need to make the same or similar material a part, as it were, of both the warp and the woof of the pattern of learning. The actual content of our list is, therefore, somewhat less than the apparent content.

2. Social Studies should not be taught in isolation. By co-ordination with other lessons and co-operation with other teachers some of the material can be covered in periods other than those at the disposal of Social Studies as such; and this *should* be the case, otherwise the objective of integrating the curriculum as a whole will not be attained. For example, the world's flora and fauna, the elements of matter, the chemistry of life, gravitation,

and the evolution of power might be covered in General Science, at the same time as relevant material was being handled in Social Studies.

3. By the use of modern and unorthodox techniques a great deal of matter can be rapidly covered. For instance, an afternoon's visit or a talk from a guest speaker may teach more than many ordinary periods, especially if the pupils are prepared for it beforehand and given a chance of discussion afterwards. Or again, *The Earth's Relationship with the Universe* can be rapidly explained in a way that will endure by a film, a film-strip talk, or by other visual aids. As Dr. Macalister Brew tells us in *Informal Education*: "It has been scientifically estimated that 84 per cent of our perception comes through our eyes." Neglect of that truth in the past has put a brake on the learning speed of our children. Yet again, the essential background of major historical events, and the characteristics and history of early and later civilizations, can be brought right home to children, if need be within a mere few weeks, by means of a well-integrated course of preparatory talks, films, visual aids, and discussions.

The radio also offers valuable outside help to the Social Studies teacher. In the sessions of the B.B.C. series, *How Things Began*, offered during the Spring and Summer terms of 1948, every title was appropriate for our syllabus. Especially relevant were: *Man makes the Forest his Servant*, *The First Seamen*, *Learning to Count and to Measure*, *Learning to Write*, *The Coming of Iron*. The series, *Stories from World History*, gave accounts of great explorations, inventions and scientific discoveries of the fifteenth to nineteenth centuries; and the series, *The World We Live In*, presented, during the Spring term, a programme under the general title of *Social change in Britain from the Time of the Industrial Revolution*.

There was equally useful material for our purpose in the Citizenship course and the Geography, Travel, and Science programmes. These talks are for only twenty minutes, which allows ample time for tying their subject-matter in with any projects that are afoot, and with the scheme as a whole.

Of course, many schools are still woefully unprovided with strip-projectors, film-projectors, and radios, but ingenuity applied in accordance with the principles of motivation outlined in the previous chapter can do much to compensate until such essential equipment is available in all schools. One Secondary Modern school master, intent to get across the rudiments of economics to a not very bright form, invented a game of industry, barter, trade, and banking which achieved his aim without difficulty whereas "chalk and talk" had completely failed. After all, infants are taught first steps in home arithmetic by playing shop, and "Monopoly" was a popular craze with adults for two or three winters; so why not game-like activities as a way of bringing home useful information to the adolescents? Many similar examples of teachers' resourcefulness could be given.

Some of the material from the Bureau of Current Affairs is also very useful. Indeed help is available from many sources for those prepared to improve upon orthodoxy.

4. Once a study unit is launched, children will without prompting give up their own time to getting on with it. The author recently saw a number of first-class wall charts prepared in their own time by thirteen-year-old pupils for no other reward than the pleasure of doing something useful. One chart illustrated the chief industries of the world and their location, small symbols being stuck on to an outline map of the world. Another presented

the History of British Farming from the thirteenth century to the present day, showing plainly the changes in village life and the gradual mechanization of the countryside. A teacher who spends all her time with backward children reports that her pupils become so interested in compiling personal reference books that they give every odd moment to them as well as evening work and sometimes "hobbies afternoon" too.

Working out the Syllabus

The correct formula for working through a Social Studies syllabus (whatever the degree of detail that available time and the form's ability make expedient) is that of ordered freedom. The teacher will be well advised to make up his mind what material he intends to cover during a term and a year. The next step is for him to prepare a Record Chart of generous proportions for his private use. This chart will include a full list of the material, subdivided as seems best, which he aims at getting across over a period of some months. He should then pattern this material into study units and projects as closely as possible in accordance with the interests and abilities of his form, being ever on the alert to link the material to current items in national and world affairs. He will also plan for his own syllabus to be supplemented by work in other periods and by visits, films, radio talks, exhibitions, addresses from outsiders, and so on.

About once a fortnight he should mark off and date on his Record Chart how much of his objective has been attained and by what means. Also, every six weeks or so, he should review the overall position. He will find that more than he anticipated has been attained here, and less there; and perhaps some unexpected blanks in the know-

ledge of his pupils have been exposed. He should then devote a period or two to filling in the gaps and restoring the balance of the pattern.

Perhaps, for instance, a project on *Southampton* and study units on *Nature's Gifts to Man* and *Great Men of Science* have been undertaken in the first few weeks of a term and have gone swimmingly, but the teacher may have observed, during the course of these, that the general chronological outline of Britain's development, which he hoped had been grasped the term before, has been only partly mastered in a number of cases, while, in addition, there may have been no time to study—as originally planned for the period—the extent to which local industries depend on materials produced elsewhere, because the *Southampton* project took a couple of periods longer than was anticipated. He may decide, therefore, to slip in a lesson sequence on *The History of Mining*, which he will give with the chronological chart of British History (on the wall since last term) as background, thereby refreshing the form's memory about it. If he leads on from that to show the need for coal and other raw materials to keep the local industries running and invites volunteers to find out what are the raw materials used, and from where they are procured, and to report back with the facts after a week, he will have made good the blanks and be ready to go ahead with whatever new study seems appropriate.

By frequently checking attainment against objectives, and by interspersing such link lessons between study units, integration and the right balance and emphasis of the Social Studies course can be maintained and a complete background course gradually pieced together. As most Social Studies periods are spent in active learning, far from the pupils resenting a lesson in which the teacher

does most of the talking, they will enjoy the change, and show a level of attention and questioning interest far above the response found when nearly all lessons are passive. A questionnaire given to the pupils of a Secondary Modern school recently revealed that they liked a certain number of Social Studies lessons in which they "just listened" to lectures on subjects which clarified or extended their knowledge.

These link lessons can be extremely valuable features of a Social Studies course since it is during these that the interrelatedness of things and the fact that human knowledge is an ever-growing process may be stressed and brought home.

What's to Show for It?

Teachers are accustomed to measure their success by testable results. We can evaluate attainment in Social Studies by traditional testing methods as well as by less orthodox techniques, but a word must be said on comparative attainment at this point. Teachers of Social Studies may have to stand up to quite tough criticism from the stalwarts of orthodoxy before they have learnt to find out for themselves whether or not they are succeeding.

The traditional approach to teaching tends to the belief that achievement is to be measured by what can be reproduced in detail. By contrast the approach through Social Studies sets out to develop attitude, background, and insight as its first priorities, and these are a good deal less measurable attributes. As will be shown later, young people do learn a great deal of the "what" of study as well as the "how" in Social Studies, but it is not always obvious to the outsider and is therefore liable

to be overlooked by those expecting something quite different.

A teacher—not of Social Studies—complained recently to the author: “By the time they reach the top class all of the kids here used to know the dates of the Kings of England; now none of them do.” Of course, knowing the dates of English Kings—or any other demonstration of that kind of learning—proves nothing but a certain capacity for memorization in the pupils and a determination that they shall know them on the teacher’s part. Such knowledge has its use, but its acquisition is of course irrelevant to assessment of educational attainment. This particular critic of Social Studies was overlooking two facts: the first, that dissociated memorized material fades rapidly, and secondly that the new generation of top-formers, deficient as they might be in their power to reproduce dates by rote, were (according to the Headmaster) mentally livelier, more conscious of the contemporary scene, and much more capable of researching responsibly and solving problems on their own than their predecessors. They had acquired, in fact, a great deal more functional knowledge, even though at the loss of certain of the more academic marks of schooling.

But, although young people who have been trained through Social Studies are unlikely to show any enthusiasm for learning by heart something which they can see little value in knowing, they are, nevertheless, eager enough to master material in which their interest has been aroused or of the value of which they have become conscious. In one instance, a boy—reputed to be dull and backward—became so interested in prehistoric man that he made himself the school authority on the subject. In another, a girl was fascinated by the story of Browning and read every poem by him she could find, learning

some by heart for her own delight. In a third instance, a boy was intrigued by relative distances and speeds and learnt a large number of figures by heart which he used as a yard-stick of comparison. Such learning, of course, is not a task but a joyous experience. Its effects will remain long after all traces of forced study have disappeared. What is really at issue, of course, in all such differences of opinion about attainment is whether our *primary* educational objective is to inculcate facts or to build personality.

If Time is Short

If time or ability is in short supply, the objective of a Social Studies teacher should always be to bring home a few relationships clearly rather than attempt to cover the whole field of desirable background.

In some respects an individual personality may be compared to a rather fragile flag-pole that has been let only a foot or two into the ground. Without guy wires it is unstable, bends to every wind, and is in constant peril of being blown over. Just so is a person who has no well-founded relationships with society around him. The greater the number of supporting wires, the more secure will the pole be against the buffetings of the weather; but, if one has to do what one can with time and materials short, then far the better course is to attach and anchor three strong guy wires securely rather than to fix up hastily a dozen weakly stays that will quickly snap or be pulled away. Thus, if time is short or ability low—as well may be the case at the present time—the Social Studies course should be concentrated on developing a few well-understood relations, especially with the immediate locality, rather than upon covering a larger por-

tion of the course at a speed which is unnatural for the particular group.

Introducing Social Studies

There are, in the author's experience, a considerable number of schools that are anxious to start Social Studies but are a little timid about making the initial move. It may be helpful, therefore, to add a few comments on the transition.

The first step is that of thorough staff discussion. As a rule, some members will be enthusiastic about starting a course, some neutral, and others more or less strongly opposed. As a result of these discussions, a Social Studies team will probably reveal itself and the new venture should be left mainly in their hands, every effort being made to persuade the opposition into at least non-belligerency, and to promote a general sense of participation.

The Social Studies teacher of a form should, wherever possible, be also the form teacher; or, if not that, the English teacher; one of the staff, at any rate, who sees a good deal of the form.

In plenty of time before the course starts, the facts of the change in curriculum, the reasons for it, and the nature of Social Studies should be announced at assembly, and discussions on the new idea held between form teachers and forms. The pupils must be brought to realize that the course will make new and special demands upon them for active co-operation in their own education.

The Social Studies team should then draw up an experimental syllabus for, say, one year, with perhaps three double periods a week devoted to it.

The proportion of active study, projects, visits, etc., which it is advisable to introduce in the initial stages will depend upon the past experience of the pupils. If they have had plenty of practice in that sort of thing, they can obviously go straight ahead with a varied, active course of study. But, if they are used mainly to static lessons, they will need training in active study first. The first experiment may well be a simple study of the locality or of some attractive, familiar subject like *Crime*.

To give practice in co-operative study and research, it is a good idea in the initial stage to divide the form into groups of three or four (preferably three), each group under an elected leader (friends should be grouped together of course) to whom is given a notebook with certain specific requirements for information about the locality written inside. The teams may perhaps be given a week to collect the information in their own time; meanwhile normal lessons will continue in school. When the information has been collected, a start can be made on class activity, during which the collected information can be co-ordinated as maps, diagrams, and wall charts illustrating the past and present of the neighbourhood.

To develop self-confidence, and articulateness, plenty of periods should be devoted to discussion at first. The subjects selected should be simple and close to the interests of the young people. Many a class that makes no response when asked to discuss *The Problem of Europe* or something at that level, will be vigorously talkative about *Juvenile Delinquency*, *Should Girls Make Up?* *Gambling*, or *Should Professionals be treated the same as Amateurs?* The great thing is to get the young people started at their own level—you can depend upon their working up to more significant matters as they acquire skill in argument and a wider social interest. As soon as

the form has reached a reasonable level of competence in active study and articulation, more ambitious projects may be attempted.

The Social Studies team should meet frequently to compare notes and to plan how other subjects may be co-ordinated with their courses.

The products of research and active learning should not only be recognized in the form itself but good work should receive the social acknowledgement of the Head's comment and congratulations at assembly.

A few more specific points on transition may be of value. If the staff and pupils have had little experience of co-operative activity, it will be advisable to concentrate upon building up the school community for a time before reorganizing the curriculum around a Social Studies core. Any experience of joint participation for a common objective will help—a form party, something run for the parents, or, preferably, *with* the parents, a money-raising endeavour, some scheme of social service; in fact, any activity the success of which depends upon staff-pupil discussion and team-work. In addition, the morning assembly may be extended in order to nourish a sense of social unity and social purpose.

It is important that change should not be so rushed that the staff feel their sense of security to be threatened. It is also important that the school community goes forward as a whole; consequently, no form or section should press too far ahead of the general level of development. A useful preparation for both staff and pupils, in order that the change-over from passive to active learning in Social Studies may be achieved with advantage for all concerned, is to introduce optional periods, either last lesson every day or during the course of an afternoon. For his optional periods each member of the staff offers

an aspect of his own specialism or personal interests which lends itself to active study. An alternative to optional periods should be offered to the pupils, such as a quiet room for private study, or reading in the library or hall, so that each teacher has a smallish group keen to participate in what he has planned because its members have chosen to do so. During these optional periods, teachers are able to try themselves out in the activity methods appropriate to Social Studies at the same time as a backbone of pupils skilled in co-operative study is built up ready for more ambitious changes when the time is appropriate. One might suppose that such a scheme would break down because, say, the Mathematics or French optional would be boycotted by the pupils. Such, however, is not the case even with the young ones. The fact that the decision about which optional they will attend is left to the pupils themselves seems to make all the difference. Rather to the teacher's surprise, pupils bad at languages or maths., sometimes select their weak subject in order to pick up a few tips. Of course, these optional periods, as well as introducing teachers and pupils to activity methods, also serve to develop between them the co-operative relationships which are the essential group factor in a productive Social Studies course.

No certain advice can be given as to the precise number of periods that should ultimately be devoted to Social Studies. Official recommendations vary from four periods a week to "half the curriculum." It depends upon the degree of integration and other factors. If the purpose of the course is understood, and the effort to establish it sincere, growth natural to the prevailing conditions will tend to follow the inauguration without any forcing.

If this gradual approach is made, a Social Studies course will very soon establish itself firmly, and will soon

be achieving results that fully justify its inclusion. Incidentally, as soon as its stimulating effect on both pupils and staff begins to be observed, opposition tends to clear up rapidly. It is by no means unknown for an outspoken opponent of Social Studies to become converted to enthusiastic support. "It's catching," as one teacher put it. There is certainly something about working with a lively group on an interesting Social Studies project which brings a sense of purposeful enjoyment and contact with life of an order that is barely to be equalled elsewhere in teaching.

OVERSEAS VIEWPOINTS

By way of summarizing a good deal of what has gone, and for their own intrinsic interest as official statements, the following extracts are included : from the New Zealand Education Department's recommendations upon the teaching of Social Studies (1945) from the *Programme of Studies* issued by the Ontario Ministry of Education, and from the recommendations on Social Studies of the New South Wales Department of Education.

From New Zealand

"The purposes of social studies may be set forth as follows :

1. To take the main educational part in training pupils to become purposeful and effective citizens of a democracy. (By a "purposeful and effective citizen" is meant one who shows full realization, in thought and by action, of his responsibilities in the immediate school community to which he belongs.)

2. To deepen pupils' understanding of human affairs and to open up a variety of fields for active personal exploration.

"These aims may be pursued through courses that differ widely in scope, organization, and content, and schools are

free within wide limits to draw up their own programmes. The Department favours an integrated course of history and civics, geography and a little descriptive economics organized round the central theme of the life of man in society.

"All subjects in the curriculum have their contribution to make to social studies. Co-operative planning of schemes of work by the teachers of social studies and of other subjects will do much to avoid overlapping and repetition. In preparing the school time-table it will be advisable to allot blocks of periods to social studies; this will be made easier if in each class English and social studies are taught by the same teacher.

"There will be increasing need for easy access to libraries, inside and outside the school, and to a variety of class sets for reference, historical matter and visual aids. In buying class sets for reference it should be noted that there is often necessity for a few copies only.

"Regular opportunity should be given for individual and group pupil activities and for varied contacts outside the school. In this connection there will be great need for the unifying and directing influence of the teacher to avoid superficial treatment and mere accumulation of information.

"In recommending the following as substantial elements of the course the Department believes that ample opportunity will remain for local experiment. Each school should make out its own schemes of work incorporating the chief elements of the recommendations. It may be desirable in multilateral schools for several schemes to be made to suit the varying interests of girls and boys in different courses.

"The substantial elements which should be included in all courses, however they may be organized, are as follows :

"(a) Study of the social life of the pupil's own local community and of New Zealand as a whole in relation to the geographical environment and the historical background.

"(b) Study of the social life and organization of the major

peoples of the contemporary world in relation to their geographical environments and historical development. Special attention is to be given to the main parts of the British Commonwealth and to important non-British countries bordering on the Pacific.

“(c) A general survey of the origins and growth of western civilization, with special reference to the history of the British Empire and Commonwealth and of New Zealand, and of the growth of democratic ways of life. Emphasis will be placed on the contributions to civilization, material and non-material, of different peoples and periods; on the succession of social and economic systems, and the changes in outlook and everyday life accompanying them; and the accumulation and diffusion of knowledge and learning; and on the advance of science, technology and invention, and on the social implication of that advance.

“This historical study will show how man’s development has been influenced by his physical and cultural environment and how these have been gradually subjected to his control and use.”

From Ontario

“The aim of the whole course in Social Studies is to help the student to understand the social world in which he lives. Mature understanding, of course, can come only with enlarged experience; but the teacher should endeavour to lead his pupils at each stage of their growth to explain for themselves, in terms that are intelligible to them at the time, the social world of which they are a part. The course will be successful if the student’s interest is so aroused that he will continue—even after he leaves school—to keep himself informed with regard to events as they occur, and to seek out the meaning of social forces that surround him.”

From New South Wales

“The keynote of success in the handling of Social Studies must be: (a) Activity on the part of the pupil; (b) A desire to know facts; (c) A desire to use facts.

“ ‘ We learn by doing and what we do not practise we do not learn.’ It is essential, therefore, that the schools should more and more be places where actual living goes on. Autocratic methods should give place to democratic methods seeking to establish joint responsibility, a sense of partnership, an enlightened critical attitude, a willingness to compromise. A realization that society is an intra-dependent organism, and that its purpose is to help the individual to his fullest self-expression, will gradually be built up. While uniformity in certain essentials may be necessary, the idea of the child as an individual is not to be lost sight of, and the need for tolerance and co-operation is stressed. The ability to reason critically, to distinguish between true and false, should be developed and prejudices and antagonisms should give way to a saner outlook. The fault of the past has been the stressing of differences amongst the nations and the cultivation of aggressive policies on the basis of these differences.”

In another statement, issued by the Board of Secondary School Studies in 1945, appear the following as among the primary aims of a Social Studies course :

“(1) To aid in preparing the youth who pass through the secondary schools to play an effective part in an evolving society by giving them basic knowledge about social, political, economic and international matters, useful and meaningful to them as Australian citizens.

“(2) So to construct the course as to unfold a developing theme from topic to topic and from year to year, thus constituting a closely integrated subject which calls upon, but stands independently amongst, such cognate studies as history, geography, political science, economics, anthropology, law, religion, philosophy, cultural sociology and social psychology.”

CHAPTER IV

PATTERN OF A PROJECT

EVERY teacher of Social Studies is a pioneer. There are not as yet—and let us hope there never will be—any finalized blueprints in existence for the design of a Social Studies course. Moreover a great deal of information that would be useful to us has yet to be gathered. For instance, we do not know what is the best selection of material on which to work at any particular age. We do not know what is the optimum length of a project or study unit for children of different ages and intelligences. We do not know in what way the various teaching methods at our disposal can be best combined to produce maximum impact. Consequently, the content of this and following chapters should not be taken in any way as offering ideal schemes; but rather examples of practical ones. Once a course is started it will tend to grow in a way that meets the needs of the group involved.

There is another point which must be borne in mind. Since the teacher's approach to Social Studies is likely to be more personal than his approach to orthodox subjects, readers will have a variety of ideas about how to tackle the job. That is as it should be. Let each draw from himself what he has to offer. There are many ways of shaping the course; in fact a limitless number of possible combinations exists of major and minor projects, of study units, link lessons, lessons that are slipped into the course to follow up on some important current event, and of

supplementary activities, such as visits and talks, by means of which the content of a Social Studies course may be efficiently conveyed, and its lessons brought home in a way that gives form and sense to "the otherwise confused medley of phenomena."

Nevertheless, practical examples have their value, so long as they are appraised as experiments and not taken to be patterns of standardized procedure. Accordingly the following outline of a short project in action may be of service by way of giving a bird's-eye view of the new working relations that Social Studies develop.

AN AIR MAIL LETTER TO AUSTRALIA

Miss X examined her Record Chart and went over the recent study activities of her form. Yes, it certainly looked as if the form's attention had been too much concentrated lately on the home front. They had made a study of British waterways, and their effect on Britain's history, had visited the House of Commons, had carried out a survey of local industry, had studied the economics of marketing a toolshed (which they had put into effect in manual training) and had had a talk from a Borough Councillor on the housing problem. It was time to get beyond Britain for a while and remind the form about the world elsewhere. Last term they had dealt with *The Conquest of the Sea* which had made a most exciting study with its adventure stories and model-making, so the new project would have to be something pretty stirring if the standard of interest was to be maintained—better have a talk with the form about it.

"Let's study the countries where we've got correspondents," somebody suggested.

"Can't do them all at once," came the comment.

"Vote on the order," suggested one of the smaller boys who was a form teller and a firm advocate of voting procedures on every possible occasion.

So they voted, and Australia won.

"How far away's Australia, Miss?" asked a girl rather inclined to lisp, who could always be relied upon to ask the obvious question.

"Ron's our expert on distances," replied Miss X. "How far is Australia, Ron?"

"In distance about twelve thousand air miles, in time from ninety to a hundred hours," replied Ron promptly. Ron, if we tell the truth, was just a trifle cocky about his knowledge of air times and distances. He studied the B.O.A.C. schedules as some boys of earlier times used to apply themselves to Bradshaw.

"Record's faster than that," objected another boy.

"We measure by standard speeds, don't we, Miss?" retorted Ron.

"Can't see why," grunted the other, but his complaint was swallowed by an excited "Oh, Miss! Oh, Miss!" from a slip of a girl who was rather immature for her age but full of ideas, and occasionally hit on a good one.

"Yes, Dorothy," said Miss X.

"Oh, Miss! Couldn't we send a letter to an Australian school and ask them to reply to us? Then we could study Australia while it's coming back."

"Oh, yes, let's do that," came a chorus of agreement.

So that was how it started. Miss X promised to get the addresses of three Australian schools, then all members of the form would write letters and the three best letters would be posted to Australian schools by air mail and the schools asked to reply quickly so that the pupils

would be able to tell how long the double journey took.

Which towns should they write to, was the next query. Out came the atlases. "Let's send to Darwin, Brisbane, Melbourne, *and* Perth," somebody proposed, "then we can have a race there and back." And so it was finally decided.

"I think we ought to get the whole project worked out before we start on writing the letters," said Miss X. "We must remember what we are trying to do. We want to get to know all about life in Australia, and what the country is like itself, and to compare it with Britain and other countries in the world. We have done some work on it already of course. But this time we need to build up a more complete picture—as though we were going there and wanted to know something about the country first, and the way the people live."

"Let's make some scrap books, Miss," suggested the girl who had had the original idea.

"No," said one of the bigger boys who was good at drawing, "wall charts are better."

"We ought to have a form reference book as well," added a boy who had a flair for fact-finding.

These ideas seemed to meet with general approval.

"Could we have a film, Miss?" came another suggestion.

"I don't think we ought only to deal with Australia itself," went on Miss X. "After all, we should find out something about the route the letter will follow as well, and, if there's anyone who can help us, I think we ought to learn something about the aeroplane and the air service."

"Tom and I'll do that, Miss," chimed in a boy eagerly. "We know a chap who used to work at an airport."

"No, I'll do that," objected a boy in glasses. He was unable to take part in games and seemed to make up for that by always wanting to do the most romantic job going.

"I rather hoped you'd cope with the animals again, Arthur," said Miss X tactfully. "You did them so well last time."

"Yes, you do animals," said the first boy in a voice that was half-wheedling, half-domineering.

After a little further discussion, which enabled Miss X to introduce the form to the project, and to get the general feeling of the form about it, Miss X brought the discussion to a close.

"We'll have to leave it there," she said. "I'll draw up a scheme of study units and put it up on the form notice-board. Next time we'll decide who is going to do what and get straight on with writing the letters to the Australian schools. Now we have some points to clear up on local industries. Frank's team promised to give us an account of the shoe factory where his father works and to tell us what raw materials they use and where they procure them. Nancy, you're keeping a record of the raw materials of local industry for the form file, aren't you? so you'd better take notes while Frank's talking. Will your team have the Local Industries File ready by next Social Studies period, or had you better carry on with it while we begin Australia?"

"Oh no, it's nearly finished, Miss. We're just held up for Frank's bit," said Nancy.

Frank had moved up to the teacher's dais and was waiting to begin his account. Miss X introduced him formally, as from the Chair, and Frank mounted the dais to give his talk—and answer questions—on the local boot and shoe industry (with the obligation of finding any

answers later to relevant questions that he was unable to answer on the spot).

The next morning (Tuesday) the following appeared on the form notice-board :

NEW PROJECT

Air Mail Letter to Australia

1. Every member of the form is to write a letter of between two hundred and three hundred words. The best eight will be selected and read out to the form, who will make a final selection of four, which will be sent shortly to Australian schools on behalf of the form. The Australian schools will be asked to reply within a day or two of receiving the letters.
2. While the letters are on their journeys, we shall study Australia, the air route to it, and the Air Mail service that carries the letters, under the following headings :
 1. British Air Mails.
 2. The Air Route to Australia.
 3. What are the physical features of Australia?
 4. How was Australia discovered and settled?
 5. How has Australia developed since the first settlement?
 6. What are the industries of Australia and how and where are they carried on? (Study of towns and population should be included.)
 7. With whom does Australia trade and what are her imports and exports?
 8. What creatures live in Australia and Australian waters?
 9. How and where is Australian farming conducted?
 10. What sorts of climates and plants are found in Australia?
 11. What mineral resources has Australia, and how and where are they developed?

12. How is Australia governed?
13. How are Australia's social services run?
14. What systems of transport and communications exist in Australia?
15. From what sources does Australia get her power for industry, transport, fuel and light?
16. Who are the Aborigines and how do they live?
17. How do Australians spend their time?
18. What Famous Men has Australia produced?

Units 1, 2, 6, 7, 8 and 10 will be worked out as wall charts. Information collected and maps and diagrams produced in the study of the other units will be used as material for a Form Reference Book on Australia. Groups may suggest study units of their own if they wish.

The groups should talk over which unit, or units, they would like to tackle and come to a decision in time for the Social Studies period on Thursday morning. As there are eighteen units and only twelve teams, members of the form willing to tackle a unit on their own should volunteer. Or some groups might like to take on two units.

The whole project should be completed in about three weeks; by that time we should receive answers to our letters, which will be posted next Sunday.

Next week, on free afternoon, two films on Australia will be shown if we can get them through in time; otherwise it will be the following week.

It took a little time to sort things out on the Thursday morning. Three teams wanted to deal with the aborigines; nobody wanted to do the unit on government; and there were sundry other snags. The problem of who should handle the unit on the aborigines was solved by a girl volunteering to tackle it by herself. The bespectacled boy took on the fauna, and another boy thought he would like to deal with farming in Australia. There were one or two tangles owing to overlap between groups

planning to do more than one unit but these, too, were put right with a certain amount of arbitration by Miss X. "How is Australia governed?" was still left without a home, however, so Miss X decided to cover government and social services herself as it would give an opportunity for some interesting comparisons: she knew she could get the form secretary to make notes during her lesson and prepare a page on it for the Reference Book.

Everything was arranged in about twenty minutes and the form settled down industriously to compose their letters. They brought them up to Miss X as they finished them, took out their atlases and geography books, and began a preliminary review of their coming studies.

When the letters were all in, Miss X announced: "By next Monday I hope all the teams will have planned how they're going to carry out their units. A visit to the public library and the museum will be worth while over the week-end, and don't forget to bring along cuttings and pictures about Australia whether or not they have to do with your share of the project. Remember, by the time the letters arrive back, we *all* want to know *all* we can about Australia. It's Joan's turn to run the information pool so let her have what you bring along. She'll arrange all the contributions into an easy order for reference, apart from the ones she decides to pin up. Any books on Australia you can borrow for the period of the project I will have myself, so that we can keep them locked up overnight. I hope we shall build up quite a useful reference section here, but you'll have to search around for yourselves in the evening if you want your unit to be really good."

"What'll we do on Friday, Miss?" asked one of the girls—the third Social Studies session of the week fell on the last two periods of Friday morning.

"I was just coming to that," said Miss X. "We shall want about twenty minutes to make the final selections from the letters, and then one of the parents, who used to live in Australia, is coming in to give us a talk and answer questions."

The bell went just then and the young people started trooping out to break; some chattering to their teammates about their units; a bunch stopping to ask Miss X a question or to tell her some snippet about Australia.

The bespectacled boy was the last of all to leave. "Will it be all right if I do some pages for the book as well as a chart?" he asked.

"Why, yes, please do, if you have time, Arthur," replied Miss X.

"Oh, thank you, Miss," said Arthur, as though Miss X had done him a great favour, and ran off.

Miss X smiled a little ruefully. Arthur was still rather a problem. He worked so well on his own, but always seemed to cause trouble when he was in a team. Unfortunately he was still isolated and unpopular in the form group. But he was beginning to get more recognition from the others, and was at last improving in his bearing. Next term, maybe, she would encourage him to join a team again.

On that day week anyone looking into the form-room would have seen thirty-eight young people very busily at it one way or another. Some were working at wall charts, some busy on diagrams and maps; Joan was pasting a group of small newspaper photographs on to a stiff piece of brown paper ready for pinning up; two or three were hunting up facts in old Form Reference Books; others studying the pamphlets on Australia that Miss X had

collected; others yet, tucked away in corner desks, were doing some private reading.

A good deal of discussion and comment was to be heard, especially around Miss X, with whom a bunch of boys and girls were talking over their problems. Quite clearly the project was well under way. Just to remind people how time was going the boys dealing with the British Air Services had rigged up a big diagram of the route with an enormous arrow pointing to a spot along it and marked "Your letters are Now Here." How they were working it out nobody was quite sure, but, as the event proved, they were not far wrong in their calculations.

Just about three weeks later the project was almost complete. Three letters had been received in answer to the form's and were now gracing the notice-board; the other—the one from Perth—was expected daily. Some of the new wall charts were already in their places: one of Australian animals, another of industries, a third the British Air Services, and the fourth—a most elaborate affair—giving details of the air route to Australia.

The background of this chart—which was a miniature project in itself—was an outline map of the world with a thick coloured line marking the route. The line changed from blue to brown, then to red, and back again to illustrate the different temperatures encountered along the route—a solution which Miss X had suggested to the team's problem of how to get the temperature point across in a simple way. Black ribbons led from four of the stopping-places to differently coloured squares of card on which were given some details of Tripoli, Karachi, Calcutta, and Singapore. Each card had an outline head of a native inhabitant stuck in one top

corner, and some small pictures of the places in the two bottom corners; the second top corner was occupied by one end of the tape which, in the case of Singapore, carried on above the exhibit to end in a magnificent flying Constellation with an arrow "To Darwin" pointing the way onwards. The route of the Hythe flying-boat was also shown, a cutting of the craft in the air serving for illustration.

The Form Reference Book had already been deposited with the Head. When returned each team would have it for two days, after which it would be kept available in the form's reference library. Joan's information pool had grown to an enormous wodge of material which she had managed to keep under control by sorting related photographs and cuttings into large envelopes with notes about their contents on the front. This material would also be stored for future use.

The form's reference library on Australia had grown to twenty volumes, but they were all borrowed and were due to be returned in a couple of days. Several pupils were reading adventure stories based on Australia which they had borrowed from the public library.

The second period of the double session—the last on the project—was to be devoted to an Australia Quiz with the form divided into House Teams under Miss X as Quiz Master. The basis of the questions was to be the Reference Book which the Head had promised to let Miss X have back for the quiz. The first period, however, was to be given up to the usual retrospect on the project and to future plans. The form members were this morning seated quietly in their desks, enjoying the contentment of having completed a good job together and awaiting Miss X's summing up.

"Well," began Miss X, "that's another useful project

finished, apart from some final touches to three of the charts—and the missing letter which we hope will be here by the end of the week.”

“S’pect the sharks have had it, Miss,” said the class buffoon, and everyone laughed.

“Anyway, the time’s come for comments,” went on Miss X. “We know it was a good project but it can’t have been perfect. Is there anything we can learn from it to help us when we do another like it? For one thing, do you all feel you have found out as much about Australia as you hoped you would when we started on the project?”

“I think we don’t learn enough about what the others are doing,” said one girl. “At first you look around quite a bit but when you get busy on your own unit you forget to. And we do a lot of work on our own out of school too.”

“You can read the Reference Book afterwards,” said a boy.

“Yes, but there’s too much to see all at once then,” came the reply.

“What do others think?” asked Miss X.

“If you listen to what any speaker who comes says and see the films and read as much as you can, as well as doing your own unit, and then finish by reading the Reference Book, I think you ought to know about everything by the end,” was one opinion.

“Depends which your unit is,” came another comment. “My group was doing population, industries and all that, and we only just got finished in time. We weren’t able to study anything else.”

“I wonder if it would help,” said Miss X, “if next time we gave up one period a week—half a session that is—to exchanging information and views between the

teams; say one half of the teams reporting one week and half the next."

"Oh, yes!" agreed a number of voices.

"Right, we'll do that in future," said Miss X. "Are there any other points?"

"I think the units aren't divided right," said a boy who had already spoken. "Some teams get finished and have time to spare; others have to rush."

"Perhaps it's you who's slow, Geoff?" suggested a boy in the next desk to the speaker.

"No, I think Geoff's right," said Miss X. "His group was overworked. We should either have made the group larger or split the unit. We've rather hurried this project to see if we could beat the letters so some of you have had a hard job to get through. Geoff's team, especially, has done very well to finish at all in the time."

"Splitting the unit's better than larger groups," advised a girl. "If you have a group of four or more you just get in each other's way. Three's best."

"Depends on what you're doing," said a boy. "There were a group of ten of us working on scenery for the pageant last summer and that was none too many."

There was plenty more chatter, but constructive suggestions seemed to have dried up and, as Miss X wanted to postpone a final discussion on Australian life until after the quiz, she redirected the form's interest on to their next Social Studies activity.

"Anyone any ideas about what we should do next?" she asked.

"Let's do more about ships," a boy suggested. "It was good when we did that."

"I'm afraid there's so much we *haven't* done, that we can't spare time for any repeats just yet," said Miss X, smiling back at the enthusiast.

"Could we have a big project like they had at my sister's school?" asked the girl who had suggested the Australia project. "They spent a whole term on it and ended with an exhibition. Mum and I went to it. They'd got models and things all round the room. It was good."

"We might plan an exhibition of some sort for the summer," said Miss X; "then it would fit in with the At Home. But we shan't be able to start anything like that this term."

"Let's do a project on the law and have some mock trials," was Arthur's idea. He had adored being the criminal on the previous occasion.

But Arthur was howled down.

"I think we ought to do something leading out of the Australia project," said Miss X. "There were so many things we only touched on."

"New Zealand," someone said, and "Black people," somebody else. "Make boomerangs," was the buffoon's inevitable comment.

"I know," said a boy called John, who was so proud of his group's chart of the route that he could hardly keep his eyes off it; "let's do oil."

"Oil! Why?" questioned a girl.

"Because there wouldn't be any aeroplanes without oil, of course," said John. "There's a film about oil at the 'Mecca' this week. It's exciting."

"It's soppy," came a contrary opinion from another boy.

"Oh no, it's good," retorted a girl, before John could reply.

"He doesn't know what he's talking about," commented John caustically, eyeing his critic sardonically.

"It's good, Miss. You go and see it."

"I will," said Miss X. "In fact, if several of us see it

we might have a discussion about it for one period on Friday. But what we have to decide now is whether or not we should start a unit on oil."

The idea seemed to appeal; especially to the boys.

"Let's do oil and then act a play about it at the end of the term," suggested John's friend Tom.

"If we study oil," said Miss X, "I'll have to see if Mr. Smith will give you the chemistry of it in your science lesson, because I'm afraid I don't know anything about that side."

"Mr. Smith'll help," Tom assured her. "He's just told us how a jet engine works, so it'll fit in to do oil."

"Well, I'll ask him," said Miss X, "and if he says yes we'll have a study unit—I don't think we shall have time for a complete project—on oil."

"With a play?" asked John.

"We'll see about the play later," said Miss X. "But if anyone gets a good idea for a play he had better start writing it up in case we can fit it in."

At that moment a first-former arrived bringing the Form Reference Book from the Head, and the pupils began to move around to form their House Quiz teams.

More Points of Practice

There we see Social Studies in action and the way that a good deal of flexibility is possible at the same time as working to an overall plan which has directing it the clear purpose of acquainting the young people with their environment and their relations to it. This project, although of a quite simple and straightforward type, is exploring many vital relationships at the same time as providing a good background knowledge of Australia. The project is linked with reality and made to seem more

intimate by the exchange of letters, by the fact that the form has correspondents in Australia, by the visit of a parent who has lived in the Antipodes, and by keeping newspaper cuttings that refer to Australia.

The project brings home the interdependence of nations today and also the smallness of the world in this age of radio and aeroplanes. At the end, everybody in the form group, including the teacher, has learnt something, and everyone has gained a sense of achievement through the satisfactory completion of the project. Discussion of the project is used as a means of promoting intelligent criticism, and the conclusion of one project leads logically forward to the new study, with everyone thus understanding the reason for the new study, and aware of what he should find out through it.

Of course, the group we have shown in action are obviously familiar with active study and are a competent, intelligent bunch of youngsters. Standards would have had to be lowered and methods altered in order to deal with less able children. But the general approach could, nevertheless, have been the same. With less able children it would have been necessary to set them to search for answers to more specific questions: each main question, that is, would have had to be split up into a number of subsidiary questions of a clear, straightforward type. At a lower level of intelligence still, perhaps all that could have been achieved might have been the creation of a multi-purpose reference map of Australia by sticking symbols—representing population, industries, resources, and the rest—on to a large outline map. But the general scheme of learning about Australia through co-operative endeavour, at the same time as actually establishing communication through the post, could have remained the same regardless of the standard of the

accompanying studies and activities. A good framework serves well, as a rule, over a wide area of age and intelligence—which is one test of its efficiency as a motivating device.

It is, of course, better not to follow one project immediately by a precisely similar one. In the given case, it might seem logical to have followed on with a study of New Zealand run along similar lines to that of the Australia project, but, as a rule, it is wiser to interpose a different type of study unit such as the one suggested about oil production and refining.

The objectives of this new study will be to find out all about oil, and its significance in the modern world, to discuss relevant problems, and also perhaps to dramatize some aspects of man's efforts to produce enough "liquid gold" for his needs. The preparation of charts and reference books will not be stressed this time, although, if anyone wished to present the information acquired in visual or diagrammatical form, he would, of course, be encouraged to go ahead. Change of approach to study is always refreshing, and when the group turns its attention to New Zealand later it will do so with heightened interest. Another point in favour of a break is that a further project located in the Antipodes will serve better as revision of the Australia project if there has been a lapse of time—though preferably not too long a break. Naturally, if the study of oil reveals any new facts about countries or regions previously studied, these will be recorded in the Form Reference Books, Scrap Books and Personal Study Books concerned, if such exist.

A major project, such as described in Mr. A. H. T. Glover's book *New Teaching for a New Age*, is a way of integrating an immense amount of material in a single project, and such may usefully be attempted from time

to time as soon as a group has had a good grounding in active study. Some schools set some Social Studies periods aside in which gradually to develop a major project while following the main course at the same time in other periods. But care must always be taken, when an exhibition is planned, to prevent the purpose of the study itself from being crowded out of the pupils' minds.

However, not all work in Social Studies need be of project type. The ordinary lesson has its place, and sometimes the best way to cover certain material may be for the form to work through a suitable book together in the traditional way. Schedules of private reading also have a place, especially with older, well-trained participants.

In fact, where a Social Studies course is concerned, the best method is undoubtedly variety of method. Such variety helps to bring home to the young people the growing, changing characteristics of life, the many-sidedness of truth, and to develop flexibility of mind and a capacity for adjustment to new circumstances and situations. So long as objectives are clearly understood and consistently pursued, every practical means to make study a varied experience can do nothing but good.

CHAPTER V

GENERAL BACKGROUND ACTIVITIES

A LARGE-SCALE experiment carried out in America just before the war has some relevance to the problem of slant and method in the teaching of Social Studies. In this experiment—the so-called Eight-Year Study—a group of college students who had been trained in secondary schools where a well-understood purpose, an experimental attitude to study, and a social approach to the curriculum were found in combination were tested against a comparison group, of the same intelligence and background, who had followed an orthodox routine type of schooling. Members of the first group, by special arrangement, were permitted to enter college on their general record; whereas the comparison group had studied and qualified for the academic attainments required for college entrance. The broadly and experimentally trained students proved to be superior to their comparison group in every field—academic and non-academic attainment, social awareness, clearness of reasoning, maturity of development, resourcefulness in meeting new situations, and knowledge of contemporary problems. Moreover, the analysis of results revealed that the students from schools that had experimented most adventurously (in terms, let it always be noted, of a clearly understood purpose) were outstandingly superior in the attributes listed above, as well as

being markedly superior in general academic attainment.¹

This experiment was too broadly based and scientifically conducted for its results to be lightly ignored. It plainly indicated that the experience of a broad, purposeful, integrated, adventurous, socially directed sort of curriculum provides young people with what they need in order to grow into well-equipped, well-adjusted adults much more efficiently than does the old-style, rigid, subject-bound curriculum. If this is the case for pupils of a relatively high intelligence, we may take it that it is even more true for those less well endowed for whom an orthodox curriculum is such purgatory that they spend at least their last year at school yearning for the day when they can make their escape from it.

It is really perfectly understandable that many a child's natural curiosity wilts and dies, and, with it, a good deal of zest for life as well as all interest in learning, as a result of the tinned and desiccated mental diet provided by an old-style curriculum. For healthy growth the mind needs a nourishing balanced diet, with an abundance of fresh food and plenty of flavour and vitamins in it, every bit as much as the body does. Social Studies, then, should aim to provide a rich and varied menu of good things, first-class appetizing food for thought and feeling, so that children's minds may get what they need to become nimble, alert, and well-grown for squaring up to the tasks of life.

It is not possible for every child to have a full mind, but at least we can see that each child, whatever his inherent limitations, shall be given a fit one within his limitations. This chapter will make some specific suggestions on how to offer through general background activi-

¹ See *Did They Succeed in College* (Volumes IV of *Adventure in American Education*) or *Teach Them to Live*, a synopsis of the Eight-Year Study written by the author of this book for the New Education Fellowship.

ties the sort of mental and emotional pabulum which children both like and thrive on, and through which insight is gained. A selection of study units and projects suitable for the Social Studies sessions themselves will be given in the next chapter.

PERSONAL BOOKS

It may well be that the writer has given the impression of Social Studies as a rather disjointed sequence of study units and projects correlated only in so far as they are planned and balanced by the teacher. Indeed the course might well turn out so if no steps were taken to reinforce the lessons of the units and projects by complementary activities of a more permanent nature. It is these which we shall now consider.

As well as contributing towards the communal form reference library by helping to produce scrap books, reference books, the form log, etc., each pupil should have two books of his own for use in Social Studies: one a Personal Study Book and the other a Personal Record Book.

A pupil's Personal Study Book will be used either for keeping personal notes and cuttings—in fact for anything relevant—in connection with the projects and studies of the form, or for collecting material on any subject in which he is specially interested (a sort of personal project study). The child should be encouraged to attempt the latter. Children as young as twelve or thirteen have proved themselves perfectly capable of compiling their own illustrated reference books on such subjects as *Europe* or *The Peoples of the World* or *The History of Dress*. Whether the material is gathered in book form or as a file does not matter very much, but children undoubtedly draw special satisfaction from actually making up a book. Compiling a Personal Study

Book gives the child excellent experience of working on his own, provides something to do in odd periods, and is an outlet for personal interest and creativeness.

In his Personal Record Book a pupil will enter, with dates, all the projects, study units, visits and the rest that he takes part in, and also his specific contribution. This will take up the left-hand page. On the right-hand one he will write any notes or comments that he likes.

Personal Record Books should be collected and reviewed by the teacher periodically. They will prove to be extremely valuable both for diagnostic purposes and for assessing—and improving upon—the course which the child has been following. The teacher, of course, should compliment good work, (who was the monster who said a teacher should be sparing with his smile?), but it is not advisable to award marks, even if the school uses them for assessment of form work. The idea should be built up that the book is something to be cherished as a record of personal achievement and is not “just a school book.”

Conversely, no penalties should be imposed for carelessness or untidiness. Not only will the Record Book lose its diagnostic value if any sort of pressure is brought to bear, but its whole purpose will be ruined. The record is not kept as an exercise, and it should never be treated as if it were. Nor, of course, when the teacher takes the book in, will he do so after announcing: “All Record Books must be on my desk—correctly filled in—first thing tomorrow morning.” Rather will he say: “I’d like a look at your Record Books. If you could spare them over next week-end, perhaps the form captain could collect them up for me on Friday afternoon.”

Children love having an interest taken in their work so long as there are no penalties attached. A book or so will naturally be missing from the pile from time to time.

This may mean that the child concerned is suffering from a sense of worthlessness, or has been seriously discouraged, or feels out of his depth. What the trouble actually is may usually be ascertained if the missing book is asked for quietly and privately.

Of course, the writer is not suggesting that the teacher should never require an exercise to be completed punctually to time. Quite the contrary; but the book here concerned is not an exercise book, but a *personal* record, and its worth depends upon its being treated differently from ordinary class books.

Personal Study Books should also be reviewed from time to time and those best kept, or most interesting, sent to the Head for comment. It is a good idea to give up a period occasionally to an interchange of Personal Study Books. Good workers have the stimulus of social approval for their productions, and the slack may be stirred to better efforts by seeing what others have done. The teacher should see that even the most slovenly and uninspired production receives its measure of praise. No work is ever completely valueless, and it is praise not criticism that promotes effort.

The child should have a completely free hand in preparing his Personal Study Book, although, of course, the teacher's advice should be available if required. Some children will illustrate their books profusely with maps and drawings and will write all the text themselves; others will have to depend on sticking in pictures, etc., for illustration, and may also copy the text or part of it. It does not matter. What should receive the special commendation of authority is good and careful production. This puts the child with few talents in as good a position to produce an interesting book as the well-endowed youngster. It is good that all should learn that the

assembly of material in effective order is a creative task in itself.

These books, considered together, serve a number of purposes, among them :

(1) They provide a record for the child and diagnostic material for the teacher.

(2) They recognize and encourage individual interests, or—if the child does not undertake a private project—they emphasize that group study has its personal side.

(3) They provide something for the children to work at when the class is not itself engaged upon projects or study units embodying the production of books, maps, etc.

(4) They satisfy the child's craving for personal achievement, and develop his creative capacities.

(5) They give a child a chance of measuring his talents against others in a way which is non-competitive, but which gives him insight into his capacities.

(6) They are long-term productions, requiring sustained effort.

REPORTERS

We want to bring home in Social Studies that life on any morning of the year is a busy interdependent whirling; a continuous process of growth, decay, change and development; and that the life of the world and the school are interrelated activities of that process. In order to do that, we must contrive plenty of living contacts with the world elsewhere—visits from the school, outsiders to speak in the school, and so on. As part of this give-and-take a pupil-reporter service should be built up in the form wherever personnel are available. Perhaps a boy is interested in farming; then he may be made Farm Reporter and given a few minutes every week to tell the

form how things are in the world of agriculture. If he can keep in touch with an actual farm and each week give an account of what is going on there, that will be especially enlightening. Or perhaps two or three boys will take it in turn to supply this information service, one cycling to the farm every week-end to get an up-to-the-minute account of how the annual production cycle is progressing. Of course the report back may be given at school assembly rather than in the form. It is very good that that should be so ; but if it is given there, the form should have the opportunity of asking questions later on so that the reporter will be conscious of serving his form as well as his school.

Not all reports need be of a merely factual type. Perhaps a film fan in the form will make it his (or her) job to keep track of the local films and to give a review of the week's programmes on Monday morning. The reporter is almost sure to make use of the critical commentaries from the papers or radio, and when pupils find themselves in disagreement the whole issue of criticism may be opened up. Discussion will follow on what are the qualities that we expect to find in a good film ; and what are the respective contributions to it of actors, scenario, photography, lighting, music, and direction.

Some people feel that we should at school avoid encouraging film-going. But, of course, it is quite fatal for a school to cut itself off from the interests of the pupils ; it is much better, surely, to set out to educate these interests. We could not prevent children going to the cinema even if it were desirable ; we can, however, meet them on their own ground and teach them to discriminate. We should aim to turn every interest to serve our educational purposes. Interest always provides a starting-point. Often the greatest problem for the teacher is to find starting-

points. In films we have a varied supply of them ready made for our use.

Not every form has young people who make good reporters, but if any child has a flair, or a special interest that is at all appropriate, it should be cultivated in this way. Sometimes a single pupil or a group can be found to handle photography for the form—very useful in a number of activities.

EXPERTS PANEL

Research into the out-of-school life of a form's members invariably reveals a number of abilities and interests wholly unsuspected. They represent the links the child has forged with the outside world and it is most important that these interests and abilities should be tied in with his school life also. By rejecting the interests of children we reject them as persons; and then they reject us; and so is formed that disastrous dichotomy in the children's minds between school and life. A useful way of bringing these stray interests into the orbit of school life is to set up a form team of experts. Perhaps John is a great one on bicycles, Tom a radio fan, Joan keeps rabbits and Barbara is the expert on knitting. Or if they are not "experts" themselves, perhaps their parents are.

These experts should be asked to provide an advice and information service. The names of the panel of experts should be kept on the notice-board and their knowledge made use of freely by the form. Occasionally the whole panel may be invited to sit as a Brains Trust for general inquiries in their specialist fields.

Of course, a senior form is more likely to provide a panel of experts than a junior one, but it is surprising how much accurate information on such matters as aero-modelling, the care of bicycles, what to do if the cat is

ill, etc., is lying about socially unused even in a form of quite young children.

Quite often a boy who is poor at school has some specialist knowledge, and the fillip to his self-esteem of having it socially recognized is most therapeutic to his halting self-confidence. In addition, through this activity the form learns to appreciate—with the teacher's help—that knowledge is something possessed by mankind and is never mastered in its entirety by one man; that everyone has a contribution to make; and that civilization can only exist by each lending his mind out to his fellow men.

NEWS BRIEF

Once a week, in one way or another, and either by teacher or pupils, a summary of the week's news, with special reference to the activities and interests of the form, should be given. The newspapers, with their rather unbalanced presentation of events (sport perhaps being given half a page and a news item about F.A.O. or UNESCO perhaps two inches), leave the young person with a very hazy opinion about what matters and what does not; and fail to convey at all clearly to him the interconnexion of events. The form must also be helped to see that the life of the form and "what's happening" are related.

From time to time—an example will be given in the next chapter—a whole study unit may be started up by a newspaper "story," but, though this helps to make events seem intimate, it does not clarify the form's relations with the stream of events. We need then, in addition to any other part that the news may take in form life, a special weekly interpretation of it for the form.

As a rule the teacher will have to do this personally at first, although the current affairs broadcast may meet

needs in some cases. But the objective in either case must be to train the young people to see what has permanent significance in the news and what has not. One way of doing that is to give a few minutes a week to what one form calls *News to Mars*. The idea is that atmospheric conditions permit the Earth to get in touch with Mars for five minutes only in every seven days. What, from all the news of the week, should we transmit to the Martians? If three pupils "broadcast to Mars" every week, everyone has a turn about once each term. The three "broadcasts" should always be discussed. Why did one person give a certain event first place and the others leave it out? Which item *was* the most important? What is really important? Values can be sorted out, awareness of the world developed, and critical faculties sharpened by such discussions.

SHIPPING

Every day great merchant ships are sailing around the world, as vital to life as the red corpuscles in a man's blood. If the flow stopped, every home in the land would be almost immediately affected. All the time, too, giant liners keep peoples of all nations stirring hither and thither about the world. All this is intensely exciting for a young person—and not without its romance for adults too—and yet children, although they are told *about* these things, are left largely *unaware* of them, because the life of the sea lanes is not brought to them in an intimate way. All that is needed to set this right is a large-scale map of the world, marked with shipping routes and leading place-names, a number of pin-in flags with the names of the ships printed on them, and a couple of interested pupils to keep the map up to date with the

help of the newspapers, the Social Studies teacher, or anyone else who is knowledgeable in such matters.

A shipping map should, then, also be part of the permanent equipment of a Social Studies course. The form should select a dozen or twenty ships to follow and be informed from time to time where they are, and on what missions, as well as being able to observe their movements on the map.

Such a map serves to provide a real link with the life of the world. The papers announce a storm in the Atlantic. "Are any of our ships in it?" "Yes, look! The Brown Star liner, *Tawny Queen*, is just west of the Azores." Or, from time to time, one of "our" ships may feature in the news, or be seen on the films. Such links, and only such links, bring the doings of the world really to life for a child in a way that makes them seem his concern.

Running information about shipping may usefully be accompanied by an analysis of the weather. "Why is it cloudy today?" An explanation of what is happening to cause the dull sky interests children. "Is it going to get better or worse?" "Will it be fine for games tomorrow?" It is not difficult for a teacher to interpret, in terms of simple meteorology, the printed or broadcast weather forecast. "Here is what is taking place in this sea of atmosphere at the bottom of which we live," the teacher can explain, "so we think the weather will be so and so."

Children love to know "what causes it." They start "Whying" at an early age and would go on doing it much more if they were not discouraged so often that they lose confidence in their ability to find out. The history of each day as it comes is really a Why-so story. Kipling knew the appeal of explanation for children. He

chose myth for his answers—but fact is really just as enthralling.

HOW IS BRITAIN DOING?

The managements of factories have found that workers are a good deal stimulated to effort if they are “in the know” about how the factory runs and can follow the ups and downs of production by means of large graphs or other diagrams. The same principles apply to interesting young people in their country. One must not, of course, make the facts with which one presents them too detailed or complicated. However, it is not difficult to design devices that show at a glance, let us say, how things are with our coal production and with the export drive.

Facts should be brought up to date about once a month with a short talk on their significance for country, the neighbourhood, school and home. Outlining the problems of the country's trade to its young citizens gives them the contact with adult affairs which they both need and appreciate and teaches them to think about the larger social and economic events as their own concern.

The relations of events may sometimes be shown vividly by means of turning the form's thoughts toward national and international affairs. For example, the cold spell of early 1947 had, at any rate, this advantage; alert Social Studies teachers were able to point out a typical sequence of significant events: cold weather—deep snow—subsequent floods—death of sheep—general agricultural loss and suspension of activities—reduced home food supplies—need to import more food—need to compensate by exporting more goods—if not, fewer imports of other commodities—effects on world meat markets, etc. Every year offers opportunities of that kind.

Because thinking about the country's trading problems takes us into at least elementary economics it should not be supposed that such a survey is beyond young people. How you may procure a penknife by a judicious swop, or the problem of how to have enough money to buy a comic at the same time as going to the pictures (or choosing which pleasure is the more desirable) are economic problems with which the child is familiar enough, and the affairs of the country in their simplest form are only slightly more involved. Incidentally, the author recently heard a small boy on a Guernsey beach animatedly explaining to his sisters how Sark got its daily supplies by the steam-boat and why two tractors had just been sent there as the Germans had taken all the best horses and the remainder—old before the war—were now worn out. The sisters joined in. It was essentially an economics conversation. The boy proved to be ten years old, doing normally well at his junior school.

Young people can, in fact, take in a great deal more than we suppose so long as we do not estrange them by giving horrific names to what are perfectly simple inter-relations of facts and events. A teacher who has specially studied the backward child recently took on a second-year form of rather dull children in a Secondary Modern school. She tried them out on producing a form magazine. It was no model of literacy or beauty but the children were most enthusiastic about producing it. The Head came in one day and inquired of a small girl by way of opening the conversation: "Are you doing English?" "Oh no," said the girl, amazed at the obtuseness of such an inquiry, "this isn't English. This is good." Similarly children will show a keen active interest in production problems and the like, so long as we do not frighten them off. If we can succeed in bringing Britain's

adventure right inside the classroom, and in taking the children with us when we tell the graphic tale behind Cabinet crises as they occur, we shall not only be promoting the thought and understanding we need in Social Studies, but also ensuring that when our charges are adult they will not be among those who, from indifference, fail to register their vote at elections.

TIME LINES AND TIME BOOKS

Time sense is often poor in children, and, indeed, in adults too. But without a sense of time the individual lacks an important axis of reference in the evaluation of events. One purpose of Social Studies, therefore, should be to train this sense by constant reference to a time-scale, or, rather, time-scales, since the young people should be aware of the difference between astronomical, geological, biological, historical, and personal time-scales.

Consequently, many teachers of Social Studies take pains to develop a sense of time by simple and graphic presentation. One idea is to devote a wall of the classroom to "Time." A broad, painted line, traversing the length of the wall parallel to the ground, and marked proportionately by sections of different colours, represents the whole of extension in time to date; historical time, of course, taking up only a tiny portion at the "Now" end. A second and narrower line, painted below the first in the same colour as the section concerned in the main time line, represents the history of Man, and a third line below that, and painted just above eye level, represents the present century. Near the "Now" ends of the lines—none of which runs right up to the corner of the wall—are the form's calendar and clock. At the "Now" end of the century line is located the current affairs notice board.

If a Time Wall is not practicable, other devices may be used. One that seems to work especially well with young children is to stretch a wire or rope clothes line along the length of the room to represent the past five thousand years or whatever period is desired. Coloured wool wound around the line divides it into sections, and, at appropriate points, threads lead off to symbolic cut-outs pasted onto the wall—pyramids, two knights jousting, a steam engine, etc.

Whatever method is used, the time line should often be brought into things. If it is just left there, it will have no effect whatever after the first novelty has worn off. One teacher, if an event being studied can be located approximately in time, always asks for a volunteer to clip a peg on the line at the right point. Not only does this keep the form alert for time relationships, but the difference in time-sense between children is revealed, so that help can be given to children who are defective in this regard in order that they may become more aware by degrees of this "fourth dimension of experience."

Illustrated Time Books—made as personal or class projects—offer an alternative means of presenting the whole course of time graphically. Or, sometimes, every pupil keeps his own Century Book.

Of course, in developing time-sense, the future must be stressed as well as the past in order that the young people may clearly understand "Now" as a point of time within a process. One school has the "Now" point in the century line in the middle of the wall—where, indeed, it should be—and has a broken line continuing beyond it to end with a large question mark.

ROLL OF HONOUR

Somewhere in every classroom, as one production of

Social Studies activity, should be a Roll of Honour, with some such subtitle as: *By their achievements, we have been helped to triumph over weakness, brutality, and ignorance. By their example we may all be encouraged to make a contribution to the common cause of mankind.* The Roll should consist of a series of charts side by side, with titles such as Scientists, Artists, Poets, Musicians. One list should be of Great Men of Our Age. Against each should be written dates, nationality, and a comment upon particular achievement.

A child may see at a glance from such a roll that man has advanced by the joint contributions of all civilized peoples, and will be helped thereby to a sense of world citizenship, without which no child may today be considered to be educated. He will also learn that many men who ultimately attained a goal that made them great often started out with handicaps and sometimes in the face of ridicule. Many a boy or girl has come to accept himself as a possible contributor to life by hearing the heartening story of a Demosthenes, or a Galileo, or a Roosevelt, or a Baird who refused to let difficulties and ridicule rob him of his courage and self-respect.

THE DISCOVERERS' CLUB

Although this activity is used in a junior school there can be little doubt that it would prove equally successful in the first and second forms of a secondary school.

"The Discoverers' Club was formed two years ago in the top class for boys of ten and eleven at the William Crane Junior Boys' School, Apsley, Nottingham. Even before this the boys had been responsible for organizing and controlling class meetings under their own chairman. They had been encouraged to speak on matters of indi-

vidual and common interest as well as to answer questions from the rest of the class. A selection of the best speeches was made up to form a class magazine.

"At the same time 'centres of interest' were being developed and both methods had to be grafted on to a formal system which involved much specialization in the rest of the school. Visitors who were invited to talk to the boys about their personal experiences in connection with some particular aspects of the 'centre of interest' spoke at the class meetings under the chairmanship of one of the boys, who in this way were being trained in the art of conducting meetings with guest speakers, and this led in time to the appointment of a class secretary.

"As a result of experiments in these two fields, and with a growing spirit of co-operation throughout the whole of the work, it became possible to make use of the boys' vital interests, their intense curiosity, their joy in exploring and discovering their immediate environment, their love of collecting, their love of gangs, and their vigorous creative activities. At this stage the Discoverers' Club came into being.

"The idea was suggested to the boys, who received it with great enthusiasm. Officers were elected by secret ballot, a club badge was designed, and one simple membership rule was made. This stated that to be a full member a boy must discover something of interest and talk about it to the club.

"From its early beginnings the club has now become the focal point of all work and activity. All outside visits are club expeditions and all visitors who come to speak to the boys are guests of the club. History, Geography, Nature Study, Science, Art and Craft, and all branches of English fall within its scope, and from it is derived the necessary touch of reality, purposeful activity, and enter-

prise. Nor has the boys' enthusiasm been without its effect upon the parents. Not only do they take a keen interest in all the work undertaken outside the school but many of them take an active part as well.

"The organization holds numerous possibilities for developing special interests and for establishing committees to deal with various activities. The club badge is proving to be a means of access to hitherto unexplored territory. A large circle of friends is being formed among the wider community outside the school, especially among farmers, and anyone wearing the badge becomes a privileged person who is invited to find out what is going on.

"By means of the club's activities the boys are being trained to understand something of democratic institutions. On one occasion a member of the City Council was invited to hear the boys express their opinions on the provision of larger classrooms, a swimming bath, a children's cinema, and the type of recreation ground suitable for junior boys. A copy of their resolutions was sent to the local member of Parliament and an encouraging acknowledgement was received in reply.

"Simple rules are being framed as needs arise and a constitution is gradually being built up. Boys are encouraged to speak freely and fearlessly, while it is always understood that a job shall be done to the best of their ability. The club develops their initiative and sense of responsibility, and at the same time sets a standard of honesty, courtesy, mutual understanding and respect for other people's property. Through this work the boys are developing a genuine interest in the world around them, a love of the countryside, an appreciation of the work of others, and an understanding of local traditions, and civic pride."

The above are only a few examples of what can be done to bring classroom and world closer together. Many teachers will prefer different ways. Let each follow his hunches as well as sharing the ideas of others. What is important is that, by one means or another, every Social Studies class should be given a host of roots in the world and a number of permanent activities through which the consciousness of the interrelatedness of things may grow; thereby increasing the individual's sense of personal affinity with mankind, his sense of personal worthiness as a participant, and his capacity for individual thought and judgment. All of which offers a quite different educational objective from that of inculcating unrelated groups of facts and stimulating their reproduction from time to time. As the Harvard Committee's Report puts it: "Education is not merely the imparting of knowledge but the cultivation of certain aptitudes and attitudes in the mind of the young."

CHAPTER VI

SAMPLE UNITS

SO FAR we have been concerned with the purpose and scope of Social Studies, the motivation of the adolescent, the dynamic approach to learning, and methods of closing the gap between the life of the world and the life of the schoolroom. In this chapter a few study units and projects will be outlined to demonstrate how knowledge may be conveyed "in its interrelations." The units chosen are not offered as examples to be precisely copied so much as samples of the way material should be handled in order that our objectives may be attained. It should be observed that the examples given would not of themselves supply anything like the whole content of a complete Social Studies course; but by planning and co-ordinating such study units and projects (with link lessons, formal study periods, discussions, etc., as required, along the lines suggested) a teacher may build up a complete and absorbing course to suit his particular needs and purposes. The design of the whole course must take regard of a number of limiting factors, such as: (i) the needs and abilities of the children concerned; (ii) the teacher's own special interests and knowledge; (iii) the equipment available; (iv) the neighbourhood in which the school exists; (v) the time allotted for Social Studies; and (vi) the degree of co-operation possible between members of the staff.

It will be observed that Social Studies use a new frame of reference by means of which the child may learn. He

is not merely taught about reality ; he makes contact with it. It cannot be too often stressed that Social Studies provide an adventure in learning for both teachers and pupils. One of the chief educational functions of such a course is to throw over rigidity and bookishness completely. Each individual has to find his way in life, each man his pathless way in living out his own experience. He must seek and find ; experiment, succeed and fail ; adjust and readjust ; in fact, he must live dynamically in interrelations with the world of men and things about him. Social Studies prepare for this reality and experience—an aspect of curriculum planning which was almost completely overlooked until a few years ago. We must, it follows, treasure the flexibility which the course offers because it enables us to keep our teaching close to life.

In the following brief outlines—at best only the skeletons of study units—detailed mention will not be made of visual aids, films, radio talks, surveys, dramatic presentations, etc. It is assumed that the teacher will bring into a unit whatever is appropriate to make its study a vivid educational experience. The difficulty of the units varies from one to the other in order that examples may be given of units suitable for all children from eleven plus to fifteen, or older.

WHERE IS THE SCHOOL?

This study might be directed to the preparation of a wall chart with small replicas for each Record Book

Position in the town?

Distance from the sea?

What is within a radius of a hundred miles from school?

Height above sea level?

Distance from North Pole, South Pole and Equator?

Latitude and longitude? Ordnance Survey reference?

How far (in space and time) from London, Glasgow, Belfast, Paris, Cairo, Moscow, Calcutta, Sydney, New York, etc.?

How far (in space and time) from the sun, moon and stars?

How far (in time) from birth of earth, of life, of early civilization, etc.? How far from Norman Conquest, death of Shakespeare, discovery of steam engine, etc.?

SMUGGLING

This study originally developed from newspaper reports of a bout of smuggling

Why do people smuggle?

Customs and Excise.

History of smuggling.

Some smuggling tales.

Smugglers' haunts (Cornwall, Sark, etc.).

Modern smuggling.

The work of His Majesty's Officers of Customs and Excise.

Chaucer—a Port of London official.

Burns—the poet excise officer.

Tariffs and free trade.

On what goods is there the heaviest duty today?

The drug traffic.

International war on drugs.

The development of customs unions.

A RIDE AROUND EXTOWN

Charabancs booked for three weeks ahead for an all-day trip around Extown.

Study of Extown in outline; its history, industries, social life, finances and great men.

Preparation of detailed, large-scale map of route to be followed.

Cyclostyling and binding duplicates of route maps. (Each map should take the form of a number of sheets covering the route as a whole and enlarged sectional maps with pick-out insertions of places of especial interest.)

Presentation of a route map to every member of the party.
The trip itself with teachers available to answer questions but responsibility for following the route left to the pupils.

Report on the trip to the whole school by chosen spokesman.

Comment on trip prepared and submitted to the school magazine.

HIDDEN TREASURE

What man finds by digging : mineral resources, oil, precious stones, fossils, remains of ancient civilizations, etc.

What are minerals?

Location of the chief mineral resources.

How did the minerals come to be where they are?

Britain's mineral resources.

The coal problem.

International rivalry over mineral resources : the Middle East.

Geological surveys, digging, boring, mining and excavation.

Kent's Cavern and similar formations.

Why do things get buried?

Areas of the world not yet explored : deserts, Antarctica, etc.

Visit to mine, quarry, or iron-ore working.

Appropriate films.

Talks by a miner and an archaeologist.

Treasure trove.

ONE POUND TO SPEND

What is money and why does it have value?

What can you buy locally with £1 in the way of (a) goods, (b) entertainments, and (c) services?

Discussion on the best way to spend £1 on (a) goods, (b) entertainments, (c) services.

How much do prices vary in the local shops? Why?

If you have £1 to spend, who is after your pound?

Why does £1 buy less now than in 1913?

How many French Francs, Dollars, Roubles can you exchange for £1?

Consideration of how the cost of goods, entertainments and services worth £1 is made up.

KEEPING THINGS GOING

The objective of a unit of this sort is not only to impart information and broaden awareness but to show that civilization is a complicated co-operative enterprise in which the less glamorous work is of vital importance to the smooth functioning of the whole. It shows that all good work is of value and that those undertaking it are to be respected for the contribution they make

Study of the sorts of jobs the people in the background do in order that civilization may go on.

The lives and work of dustmen, sewer-men, cleaners, maintenance technicians, etc.

Division of form into research groups to find out the answers to such questions as *Who keeps the buses in order? How is our power-station manned? How much rubbish is collected in a week? Who is behind the scenes at the cinema? How does the greengrocer get his supplies? What happens to a letter, point-to-point from posting to delivery?*

Talks by those engaged on maintenance work.

WHO THOUGHT OF IT?

Preparation by pupils of lists of the twenty-five most important discoveries during the whole history of man.

Discussion of the lists and preparation of a common list, say :

Agriculture.

Fire.

The calendar.

Spinning and weaving.

Writing.

Domestication of animals.

Mathematics.

Road making.

The lens.

Printing.

The steam engine.

The dynamo.

The wheel.	Antiseptics.
Pottery.	Anaesthetics.
Smelting metals.	The internal combustion engine.
The compass.	The aeroplane.
Clocks.	Radio.
Building.	Atomic energy.
Ships and navigation.	

How were the discoveries made?

Why do we not know the names of the first men who made some of the discoveries?

Has the same discovery been made about the same time by different men working independently? Why should this happen?

What famous names are associated with some of these discoveries?

Which were individual and which were group achievements?

What are the five fresh discoveries of which mankind is most in need?

THE SEA

This unit has been successfully expanded into a major project including model-making, reading and dramatization of sea stories and sea poetry, study of the art and music of the sea, map-making, preliminary points on navigation, experiments in chemical analysis and distillation, etc.

How was the sea formed?

How much of the surface of the world is sea?

Comparison of the seas and oceans of the world.

Tides.

Chemical composition of sea water.

Outline history of man's mastery over the sea.

Shipping lanes.

Food from the sea.

Important harbours of the world.

Diving and salvage.

Exploration of the sea bed, etc.

PAYING FOR PUDDLETON

Study of the government of the locality from the financial angle based on the official reports and balance sheets.

Rates.

Taxes and government grants.

What improvements are desirable?

How much would they cost?

Visit to a council meeting.

Talk by the Clerk to the Council.

Study of relationships between local and national finance.

THE STRUGGLE AGAINST NIGHT

A unit of this sort should always include a good deal of practical work. If the form can have the use of a darkened room for a period, it is not difficult to arrange a demonstration of different sorts of lighting with some of the form as demonstrators and the rest as assessors. If the assessment can be checked by instrumental measurement so much the better. A demonstration of this sort makes it quite impressively clear that man's development has indeed been closely associated with his conquest of darkness.

What is light?

How does the eye function?

What light comes from the sun, by day, by night? Why does the amount of sunlight vary (i) in different places (ii) in different seasons?

The problems of fog and smoke.

How much does modern civilization depend on artificial light?

Outdoor lighting : flares, braziers, lanterns, oil lamps, gas lamps, electric lamps, arc lamps, tubular lighting.

The evolution of indoor lighting.

What is the relationship between good light and good health?

What forms of lighting exist throughout the world today?

What sort of lighting had the various civilizations at their disposal?

How does a flash-lamp battery work?

How is electricity generated and stored?

The invention of the electric lamp and fluorescent lighting.

Special uses of light: signal lights, light-houses, Davy lamps, cinema arcs, stage lighting, surgeon's head lamp, etc.

Measurement of efficiency of various types of lamps and lights.

What is the relative cost of different sorts of lighting?

How much energy is consumed in light every year?

Why is it sometimes necessary to ask people to save light?

What is the most efficient positioning of lights in a room?

Study of the efficiency of the school's lighting.

HOLIDAY PROJECT

If the school runs camps, the study of the locality in which these are to take place provides an excellent project for the summer term. Otherwise, the study by every member of the form of the area which he will be visiting will prove fruitful. The results of private research should, of course, be pooled: young people are interested in what their friends are doing. Discussions about the advantages and comparative cost of various sorts of holidays should be held, and there should be a follow-up in the autumn term in the form of verbal reports on experiences.

MUSIC, PLAY OR FILM PROJECT

The engagement of good orchestras to give performances for schoolchildren is becoming more common. Schools that send their pupils unprepared are missing a great opportunity as any coming activity of this type can serve very efficiently as a focal point for relevant study. The musical side of the programme should as a rule be handled by the music specialist, but the lives of the composers and the

historical background of the works to be heard offer excellent material for Social Studies.

Preparation for occasions such as musical or dramatic performances, and follow-up afterwards, are two of the useful subsidiary functions of a Social Studies course. The follow-up should not, of course, ever be of the answering-questions or writing-an-essay type. The value of organizing such occasions lies in the child's enjoying what he goes to see and hear; and he should not have the threat of any test hanging over him. But discussion of, say, a play—or the teacher's presenting it in its historical or artistic framework—will be appreciated by young people.

The author was struck by the difference of approach of London schools to the inclusion of visits to *Henry V* (film) and *Great Expectations* (play) in the time-table. Some treated these entertainments as a morning or afternoon out and no more. Others took great pains to help the children get the last ounce of enjoyment out of the presentations. *Great Expectations*, with its considerable social significance both in itself and because of its author, lent itself very well to the embellishment that one or two school periods devoted to it made possible. Of course, the purpose of preparation and follow-up is to arouse the interest and powers of critical appreciation of the child. They should be used to awaken the child's critical faculties, but not to impose the taste of the teacher on the child. Spoon-feeding is as objectionable in the artistic as in the academic field.

MEN AND MOUNTAINS

This project was founded upon the tag from Blake:

*Great things are done when men and mountains meet;
These are not done by jostling in the street.*

How were the mountains formed?

Where are the great mountain ranges of the world?

Which are the hilliest parts of Britain?

To which hills and mountains is the school nearest?

The effect of mountains on climate.
The effect of mountains on irrigation.
Strategically placed mountains and passes, and their influence on history—Alps, Himalayas, etc.
Mountain races and the lives they live.
Religious significance of mountains : Sinai, Olympus, etc.
Volcanoes.
The highest mountains.
Mountains as a source of hydro-electric power.
The erosion of mountains.
Mountaineering. The attempts on Everest.
Mountains as the inspiration of literature, music and art.

A study unit of this sort should as a rule be fairly short and concentrated. Under a title such as "Men and Mountains" a wide field of human experience can be covered in an interrelated way, but, if the attempt is made to deal in a detailed manner with all aspects of so immense a subject, the unit may outlast its appeal and the study be ruined by the onset of boredom. Sweeping surveys of this nature have a definite function in Social Studies; but they should be kept broad unless the subject grips with a particular group—in which case the interest released should be fully utilized. It is not difficult to assess the staying power—the "span of attention"—of a group after a little experience of them. A balance has to be struck between flitting with pointless rapidity from one focus of interest to the next and running a subject to death. One school tried recently devoting the whole curriculum all the time for three weeks to a single theme—China. The result, not unnaturally, was the prostration of staff and pupils alike. Such excesses are to be avoided. The human mind thrives best on co-ordinated variety and least well on monotony or unnatural unification. Some study units lend themselves rather to intensive treatment, some rather to extensive treatment. Both types should be included in a course.

DO YOU USE YOUR MIND?

Social Studies succeed or fail according to the ability of the teacher to stimulate the pupils to think for themselves. A part of the course, therefore, should be devoted directly to training in clear thinking. Once young people are awakened to the tricks that their minds can play them they co-operate keenly in studying the processes of clear thought. Units on logical thinking and the proper use of the mind should be interspersed throughout the course. What follows would provide material for several such units

Are you superstitious? The superstitions of the form should be collected and listed and compared with other superstitions. They should then be discussed. Finally a few practical tests should be made. For example, half the form may be asked to do something unlucky and the other half something lucky and then the one group may be tested against the other in two or three games of chance—e.g. tossing a coin and each calling in turn, the score of rights and wrongs being kept. Or two individuals may be matched in this way. It soon becomes plain to the form that the luck is not related to the superstition. In one form three bold souls volunteered to do everything that one or other of the form had declared to be unlucky during a discussion on superstitions—even going to the lengths of solemnly smashing small hand-mirrors. Fortunately nothing happened to any of them! Indeed, one distinguished himself by scoring the winning goal in a form football match.

Can they fool you? Under such a title can be studied propaganda, advertising, bias, suggestion, and confidence tricks.

The mistress of a fourth-form group tried the experiment of giving all boys and girls a piece of paper and asking them to write down what manufacturers' names they connected with certain articles which she listed to them. She then gave as prompting words a series of twenty commo-

dities such as toothpaste, motor-car, soap, cigarettes. It was not difficult to show the young people that their responses were dictated by the amount spent on advertising by the firms in question. The session was concluded with a discussion on the pros and cons of advertising.

By a similar direct approach it is not difficult to bring home the content of bias, suggestion and propaganda in commercial, political and other writing. As Dr. W. Temple used to point out, it is only necessary to give to young people the French and British accounts of the Battle of Agincourt to rid them for life of an uncritical faith in the printed word. And almost every day divergencies of view just as spectacular may be observed between one daily paper and another.

Are you prejudiced? Most young people will stoutly deny that they are prejudiced, but it is not difficult to demonstrate that prejudice is something from which we are none of us quite free. It should be made clear to the form that prejudice is holding to an opinion without reason, or in the face of reason, and *not* the holding of views different from others.

Spotting the flaw. Young people love detective work. This can be utilized in the interest of clear thinking by asking them to spot the flaw or flaws in a written or spoken argument. The subtlety of the points must be graded carefully in relation to the intelligence of the group, as the objective is not to catch the young people out but to stimulate them to spot errors of reason and tricks of rhetoric. It is best to start from the very simple and work up.

What's the news worth? An effort should be made to bring home the difficulties of interpreting correctly the news in the daily papers. Young people need to learn to evaluate the news against its background. They should know about the problems involved in getting the paper out every day: the quick sifting of news from the entire world; the designing and redesigning of the pages; the

setting and resetting of type; the need, sometimes at a moment's notice, to halve or quarter the length of a "story"; the frequency of emergencies, as when some important news breaks at the last minute. They should know something of the whole intricate production process, in fact, and especially how all involved in it are forced to work to seconds, since even the fastest printing presses have their limits, and trains will not wait. When the conditions of production of a newspaper are fully understood, the young people will see that complete accuracy, quite apart from "lines" and "directives" imposed upon the staff, is an impossibility. Young people should know about these limiting factors in order that they may appreciate the skill and labour that go into every edition of a newspaper, and in order that they may realize that even their family's paper has its imperfections.

In addition, the young people should be taught to assess the difference in reliability between "It is officially announced that"; "Our correspondent writes"; "A woman present at the accident states"; and such other sources, from the highly unreliable to the almost certainly dependable, upon which an editor has to draw to fill his paper. No harm is done by a paper's carrying a rather doubtful statement if the source is properly evaluated. Harm results only when the reader has never learnt to discriminate between sources. It is, therefore, obviously most important that young people should be taught to do so while at school.

WHAT IS DEMOCRACY?

This study can best start with a discussion, from which the fact will emerge that democracy is the name given to a number of ideas which together form a certain approach to life.

The study may then advance along the lines of: How has the ordinary man and woman gained freedom from tyranny? How have the ideas of tolerance and freedom of

speech developed? How did democratic government evolve? In what way are freedom and responsibility related? Are the rights to be in the know and to participate as much parts of democracy as the right to vote and Habeas Corpus?

The lives of great democrats should be studied, and the crises in history through which the ordinary man has gained in significance at the expense of privileged castes, and also the chief public documents upon which democracy—British, French, American, Russian—depends from Magna Carta to the constitution of the United Nations.

FEEDING MANKIND

The problem of feeding 2,200,000,000 people.

What is good nutrition?

What are the chief foods of mankind and where are they raised?

Different food habits of different peoples.

Transport and marketing.

Food budget of townsmen and countrymen compared.

Fertile and infertile areas of the world.

Reclaiming infertile and eroded areas. The T.V.A. project.

Britain's own food production. Food production of region and locality.

After a general opening of this sort the form may split into two main groups (each with its sub-groups) to study, say, *How we get bread* and *How we get fish*.

The project may conclude with further study of the world food situation as outlined by F.A.O.

A unit of this sort may be run most successfully with the co-operation of the science teacher who can deal with nutrition, blights, pests, manures, and relevant material.

Before the war—as background to a project on feeding mankind—one school demonstrated the importance of scientific nutrition by feeding one set of white mice exclusively on brown bread and milk and another set exclusively on white bread and water; each set being allowed to eat and drink as much as they liked. When the former were

nicely sleek and plump, and the latter were clearly suffering from their inadequate nutrition, the diets were changed and the reverse process was observed. It may not be possible to arrange such experiments today, but there can be no doubt that young people so introduced to the importance of good nutrition are never likely to forget that vitamins and mineral salts matter, besides learning something about the technique of scientific experiments.

FINDING THE WORLD

The story of the great explorations and the gradual uncovering of the mysteries of the entire globe.

Lands not yet fully explored.

The world of small things the microscope has revealed.

The denizens of the thickest jungles and the deepest seas.

Exploring atmosphere, stratosphere, and ocean depths.

What secrets have yet to be revealed?

DRAMATIZING HANSARD

The teacher procures half a dozen copies of an important debate, and edits them to cut out the unimportant parts. The debate is then read as in a play-reading and discussed. Reports in various daily papers can be collected and discussed, and the form can write and edit its own report within a set limitation of length.

WHAT IS CRIME?

Preliminary discussion of the subject.

Crimes against humanity and crimes against property.

Moral laws and the laws of convenience.

How used criminals to be treated?

The law and penal code today.

Discussion: "Do Punishments Prevent Crime?"

What makes people criminals?

Is crime really romantic?

Local and national criminal statistics.

Mock trials dramatizing various types of court procedure.

(These should only be attempted if someone present really understands the correct procedure.)

Talk by a C.I.D. man.

Discussion on why people have different standards of honesty : Would you steal a newspaper? Not pay your fare if you could get away with it? Are people as careful to pay the tax they owe to the state as the money they owe to a friend? etc.

Crime as a public nuisance : all the trouble that has to be taken to control a small irresponsible minority.

Study of one week's crimes as reported in the papers.

How can we get rid of crime?

OUR CLOTHES

This unit divides naturally into sectors of study that may be handled in different periods but co-ordinated during Social Studies periods.

Social Studies Sector : The British textile industry.

Raw materials.

Outline history of dress.

Science Sector : Why do clothes keep us warm?

The conduction of heat.

Natural silk. The silkworm.

Artificial silk and plastics.

How research into the properties of cloth is conducted.

Dyes.

Art Sector : Design in dress.

Printing and patterning.

THE HISTORY OF HUMAN FLIGHT

Myths and legends. Man's early yearnings.

Early ideas and experiments.

How do birds fly?

The two basic principles in human flight demonstrated by experiments with gas-filled toy balloons and flying tops.

Gas-filled balloons released from the school carrying messages asking for the return of remains if found, with details of time and place. (One balloon for each pair of pupils.)

Study of the atmosphere, winds, air currents, pockets, etc.

Group of pupils made responsible for recording wind direction and intensity on days following release of balloons.

The history of dirigibles from 1783 to the abandonment of airship construction.

Why did this line of development cease? This compared with the extinction of species in natural evolution.

The history of the aeroplane. (i) Structure. (ii) Powering. Chief inventors. Great flights and great fliers. Significant failures. Problems of speed and altitude: stratosphere flight, effects of very high speeds. Human tolerance of altitude and acceleration.

Problems of safety: stalling, darkness, fog, ice, etc. Development and use of parachute. Radar. Alloys.

Gliders and gliding. The helicopter. Pilotless flight. Rockets.

What raw materials are required in aeroplane construction?

In 1917? Today?

From where are these raw materials procured?

Which countries manufacture aeroplanes?

What ground services are necessary for aviation?

Air routes of the world. Which nations control world flying?

The effect of aviation upon civilization: transport, postal and medical services, "shrinkage" of distance, surveying, war, etc.

Analysis of the journeys of such of the toy balloons as are returned. Comparison with the calculations of the group observing wind conditions.

The literature and art of aviation studied from a series of extracts and examples.

Visit to the Science Museum, South Kensington.

GETTING ON WITH OTHERS

Study of inter-personal and group relationships.

The relationships within the family; and between friends.

The relationships between the sexes.

The relationships between "bosses" and workers.

The relationships between young and old.

The attitude to foreigners and coloured peoples.

What are good manners and are they worth-while?

Discussion of problem situations suggested by teacher.

Why are we shy and nervous of others sometimes?

Is competition or co-operation the best way to get things done?

How should leaders behave in the modern world?

What are the commonest causes of people falling out?

What characteristics should we cultivate if we want to get on well with our fellow men and women?

ONE WORLD

Development of human groupings from family to tribe, to small state, to nation, to confederation or commonwealth, to United Nations.

Evolution of transport and communications.

The growing interdependence of the modern world.

How can we avoid war?

World-mindedness of scientists, artists, musicians, etc.

What does being a citizen of the world imply?

Account of a Health Project

By way of a final sample, there follows an account of a project carried out in a girls' Secondary Modern school in Essex.

"The subject chosen for a class of girls aged twelve plus of very mixed ability was *Health*, and this has led to the study of a variety of subjects.

"Health in connection with hospitals led to a discussion on the history, organization, and equipment of modern hospitals. This carried on to a study of the lives of scientists who by their discoveries improved conditions in hospitals, helping to make the treatment of disease as successful as it is today. Pasteur and his discovery of bacteria, Simpson and chloroform, Lister and aseptic

surgery, Florence Nightingale and nursing, Röntgen and X-ray, the Curies and radium, and Fleming and penicillin were among those who were studied. The children found much information for themselves from the library. The greatest interest was shown in Florence Nightingale and Fleming because the former was a nurse and the latter is actually working now.

"The dates of these discoveries, together with Public Health Acts, were centred on a time chart, at the bottom of which were shown the lives of a girl in the class, her mother, grandmother, and great-grandmother. This was to help emphasize the fact that these discoveries have taken place comparatively recently, as the children find the passage of time so difficult to grasp. This was very noticeable when the discovery of penicillin in 1939 was under discussion. Several girls said 'Were we alive then?' and I had to point out that that was the year when war broke out.

"The next subject studied was State interest in health under the Minister of Health, whose Ministry assists in health education by propaganda (posters, films, etc.), housing, and the National Health Insurance Acts. This State interest is maintained by local public health committees, who employ a medical officer of health responsible for school medical services, child welfare, sanitation, and housing. In order to gain first-hand information letters were written by the class to various health bodies and to the Ministry of Health for posters, pamphlets and films, and these formed a basis for an exhibition of public health services.

"A study of simple anatomy of the human body developed from the work in hospitals. Great interest was shown in the skeleton and the blood system. This led on to a study of simple first-aid. In talking of the human

body, questions dealing with sex spontaneously developed. The children were genuinely interested in, and anxious to learn, many aspects of this subject, and it seemed an excellent way to give sex education in connection with health education.

"The class asked for lessons in mothercraft. The girls were very interested, collecting pictures of a layette and nursery equipment. One of the happiest lessons was given by an old girl of the school, now married, who demonstrated the correct way to bath a baby.

"Every girl was given a subject connected with personal or public health to study with the help of the public library and the teacher. Lessons were also given on conditions necessary for the health of individual and community. Films were used regularly each week. These were closely allied with each subject studied, e.g. housing, slum clearance, personal cleanliness, the fight against disease, etc., and proved valuable in making clear and vivid the various subjects that oral lessons had not made real and personal to the children.

"The work of the term was collected together in an exhibition. The basis of this was a series of posters issued by the Ministry of Health. The work of the local public health committee was shown by a series of tableaux and scenes written and acted by the class, every girl taking part. Various clinics, school routine examination, and an accident were staged.

"As many visitors as possible were invited to the class to speak on various aspects of public health services. A school doctor told the class about the school medical services and child welfare work. A health visitor told of her training and work in the homes of the people. The chairman of the public health committee gave a most interesting account of the work of this committee and the

influence it has on the health of the town. These talks were very valuable in making contact between outside life and school. Visits were arranged to a local day nursery, the nursery-school exhibition, and 'The Treasure Cot,' to see opportunities available for mothers and children.

"The class have been so interested in the project that attendance has been very regular and with a higher percentage than before. The girls have also shown a desire to keep themselves clean and tidy. They have searched papers for information, especially on baby care and personal health and hygiene. The greatest interest and enthusiasm have been shown in anything to do with babies, and the girls have become aware of the reality of life after school years and of all that is done for the population of the country through public health services."

Points of Practice

The above suggestions vary from study units that may be covered in a double period with perhaps a film in addition, to projects that might well run for a whole term. What has to be borne in mind by the Social Studies teacher is that, through a quite small total of study units and projects, he has to provide the pupils with a satisfactory background of knowledge and understood relationships embracing the whole of human experience. This calls for a good deal of careful work in selection and integration, especially as the starting-point for all work should be the interest of the young people themselves. "Acts," said Pericles, "are foredoomed to failure when undertaken undiscussed." Projects, similarly, need to be discussed and accepted if they are to succeed.

But if, it may be asked, the class is going to help decide what they do, how can any planning by the

teacher keep a balance and gradually build up a complete, integrated pattern of understanding? The answer is that Social Studies are dealing with life and the young people are eager to learn about life and how to take their place in adult society. It will be found, therefore, that so long as the syllabus is kept flexible, the total purpose of the course (which itself should be discussed with the form), the plans of the teacher, and the interests of the pupils can be unified in action.

Of course, any attempt to keep a syllabus flexible in order to match it to the interests of the pupils is still considered, in some quarters, to be a completely unjustifiable pandering to the whims of the young. Recent research and observation, however, indicate that such flexibility is desirable in all subjects and essential to the educational efficiency of Social Studies. It seems that it is the nature of the maturation process to produce in children periods of readiness, or "appetitive phases," when particular knowledge or experience will be eagerly accepted. If the period of receptiveness is missed, or the knowledge or experience is offered in the wrong way, any later attempt (or a too early one) is likely to meet a comparatively sluggish response. It follows, therefore, that we must aim to work as near to the peak of receptiveness as is possible. Which means that we must offer a course that is rich with tempting opportunities for the age-range involved and capable of ready adjustment to meet any needs and interests that alert attention to the response of the young people brings to light. "It now seems necessary," said Dr. C. M. Fleming, in her summing up of recent research at the North of England Education Conference in January 1948, "to say that, since human beings are social in their nature and react always to a total situation, there is no way of adjusting schooling to the needs of children except

through the provision of continuous and many-sided stimulation—preferably in a co-educational setting—accompanied by the continued study of the achievements interests and social reactions of pupils as they develop through childhood and adolescence to maturity.”

The desirable degree of flexibility does not, however, mean that the teacher is at the mercy of his pupils and never knows where he is with his work. On the contrary, the young people look for his suggestions and guidance. Moreover, it is possible to anticipate certain phases in the process of development and to prepare material accordingly. For example, the younger the child, or the lower the intelligence, the shorter *in general* a study unit should be. With first- and second-form children (eleven plus to thirteen plus) a study unit such as *The History of Farming* or *Man's Conquest of the Air* should *probably* not run for more than about three weeks. (This will depend to some extent, of course, upon the number of Social Studies periods each week.) It is better to finish a project while there is still plenty of interest in it alive rather than to carry it on until everyone has “had enough.” Of course a personal project should be left to work itself out at whatever length the child concerned fancies. Or again, children of eleven plus to thirteen plus are in general more interested in action than in social structure. Projects for them should be kept as concrete as possible in content and treatment—*Housing through the Ages*, *Famous Inventors*, *Great Voyages*, and *History of our Town* are suitable subjects. Such units will also appeal to older children; but with intelligent children from about thirteen plus onwards studies depending primarily upon social interest such as *The Problem of Inequality* or *What is the United Nations Organization?* may be added. After a little experience, teachers of Social

Studies are surprised to find how closely they can match their plans to their pupils' interests.

The Whole and the Parts

A Social Studies course aims to give understanding of "the seamless coat of learning" and also to spotlight details of the pattern. It is a good plan, therefore, to mix up study units that sweep the whole or large areas of the pattern with units that are more limited in content.

To repeat an analogy already used, the process may be compared to the technique displayed when a film of an orchestra in action is being shown. We first see the whole orchestra performing, then we are taken to watch the intricate fiddling of a violinist; then the camera's eye leaps to the twinkling fingers of the pianist; then we are back again looking at the whole, this time from another angle; a moment later we are watching the drummer, and so on. Gradually we acquire an idea of the whole and how the whole is made up; we apprehend the workings of all parts and their interrelations. In fact we not only have the evidence of our eyes and ears that something intricate is happening, but we begin to understand what is happening and how it is happening.

If we take the orchestra as representing the whole of human experience, and the instruments and players as its parts, then the technique of the teacher of Social Studies may be compared to that of the film director. The teacher aims to explain and enhance the significance of the whole in terms of the parts, and of the parts in terms of the whole. So gradually is built up an integrated understanding of the continuous process in which forms, patterns and activities are interrelated in one vast intricate design which is the whole substance and background of human experience.

CHAPTER VII

THE TEACHER'S PART

HAVING dealt briefly with the purpose and pattern of a Social Studies course, we must now turn our attention to the teacher's specific contribution. The teacher of Social Studies is not in an easy situation today. He faces the problem of how to teach effectively with forms crowded, equipment scarce, often with a high incidence of backwardness to frustrate his purpose, and against the background of a world that is reeling under the impact of war and shortages, and simultaneously undergoing the agonies of a transformation the final extent of which it is impossible to envisage. Not infrequently he is also obstructed by those who, seeing about them so much evidence of change, the old crumbling while the new is not yet formed, are tempted to retreat into a rigid orthodoxy rather than risk the adventure of creative reform.

But the very problems of our times are themselves evidence of the need for Social Studies, since they are all of a piece with the failure of education to undertake its whole task. Twice this century the ignorance and social ineptitude of the masses have let aggressive cliques play havoc with the world. The future of mankind is today threatened by lack of insight on the part of the individuals of whom society is composed, and by a low level of understanding, and therefore of co-operation, within and between communities. In a sentence, our civilization is less conscious of itself than it needs to be if it is to

survive. The old techniques of education cannot unaided make good the deficiencies. Our educational system needs new approaches, new methods, and new practitioners to reinforce its former strength if it is to be able to measure up to its immense new responsibilities. It is hard to see how all the elements of the educational experience needed by a modern child can be supplied except by a curriculum based upon a broad Social Studies core. Hence the importance of the Social Studies teacher in the new educational framework.

The Teacher as Interpreter

At the outset of our consideration of the contribution of the Social Studies teacher, we may usefully consider a statement of Mr. M. L. Jacks about the function of the teacher: "Above all he is an interpreter—interpreting not only the experiences of his pupils but also the community to which they belong, its past no less than its present, its purposes and its efforts to achieve those purposes, its cultural and technical achievements, its opportunities and possibilities, the invitations to service which it extends and the rewards, glittering or dimly discovered, which it offers."¹

This task of interpretation, common to all teachers, is especially appropriate to the teacher of Social Studies because his field of operation is no less than the whole sweep of human experience. He is, therefore, in an ideal position to explain one thing in terms of another within the present, and the present in terms of the past.

Society as a whole is sickly for lack of interpreters; the individuals within it retreat into isolation and apathy because they do not understand what is happening around them, and because they have never been taught that to

¹ *Total Education*, p. 88.

search for understanding is a task of life that the most halting mind shares with the greatest. Hence the link between the individual and his environment has been seriously weakened : because no one has bothered enough about teaching the young people to apprehend the relationships binding them to their community. Many young people in consequence—isolated, timid, and indifferent because unaware—live out their lives without a sense of purpose, significance or direction.

This dissociation of people from their communities has been a gradual process. The atomization of society, having spread to education, promoted an exaggerated degree of isolated specialization, a neglect of social content, and indifference to the needs of young people for social orientation. As a result, teachers were prevented from being efficient interpreters. So education became isolated from the main stream of life and resistant to adjustments necessary to serve mankind's need for social understanding—a need which has increased in proportion to the developing size and complexity of the social structure.

Social Studies have arisen from this very need : their function is to explain life while preparing for it. First, then, in our consideration of the teacher's part in Social Studies must come his function as interpreter.

Necessary Qualities

Apart from the difficulties inherent in his task, the teacher of Social Studies may well be disconcerted by the breadth of the curriculum he must needs handle. This, however, should not perturb him unduly. The qualities required in a teacher of Social Studies are personal rather than academic. The chief requirement is a fervent

belief and interest in life and man, and in youth as the growing-point of civilization.

The second requirement is a satisfactorily broad and integrated personality and outlook which are in affinity with the modern world. A Social Studies teacher needs to be intensely interested in change and progress.

The third important quality is a good capacity for human relationships: he will need to get on well with his pupils and with his colleagues. He will need to understand and enjoy co-operation and to set a good example of it.

If the teacher has these characteristics, his particular academic attainments are relatively unimportant. It is obviously necessary to have a good general knowledge of History, Geography and English; apart from that, whatever his interests and specialist learning may be, he will find in Social Studies ample opportunity for putting them to good use. The essential qualities required by Social Studies lie in the manner of teaching more than in specialist knowledge of content. It is both inevitable and desirable that the Social Studies teacher shall be learning along with his pupils. Indeed, the encyclopaedic teacher may be less able to stimulate a Social Studies class than a fellow adventurer. The pupils feel their efforts to be rather futile if they think the teacher really knows all the time what they have to go to such trouble to find out.

Keeping Up to Date

Where the Social Studies teacher must be on top of his subject is in being up to date. He will soon find that his pupils expect him to have a sound and considered opinion on all important events in the news: they will certainly lose confidence in his guidance if he merely tells them to relate their studies to current events without

being obviously deeply interested in them himself. He should endeavour, therefore, to be adequately informed on all the general problems concerning men and affairs and aim to be something of an "expert" on one or two issues in which he has an especial interest. All of which, of course, is nothing more than what is proper development for any citizen of a democracy. However, it is a duty not infrequently neglected, whereas the Social Studies teacher should himself be a convincing example of democratic citizenship.

Thus, the teacher of Social Studies will be well advised to read regularly at least two newspapers of divergent points of view; to subscribe to one or more of the educational weeklies and to one of the weekly reviews; to study the maps and handbooks published about current affairs; to buy such periodicals as will keep him right up to date with his special interests; to keep in touch with the progress of science through the *Penguin Science News* or the equivalent; and to spend an evening occasionally at the public library browsing through the quarterlies. He should procure sufficient official publications to keep *au fait* with new legislation, with Britain's economic position, the statistics of health and crime, the activities of United Nations, etc. He should also, of course, keep an eye on the radio and film programmes and listen to broadcasts and go to the cinema often enough to be able to meet his pupils on their own ground in these educational-recreational fields. No doubt many listeners to *Transatlantic Quiz* were surprised to find that Professor D. W. Brogan revealed not only great specialist and general learning but also knowledge of all the latest films. People aiming to understand and interpret the modern world must share in the life and recreations of the people.

Personal Maturity

Young people will always co-operate readily with those who are in touch with the life of the world. They will go where the life is. That is why a Social Studies teacher will succeed and enjoy his work to the extent that he is an alert person of the modern world. "Teachers," writes Dr. C. M. Fleming of the University of London Institute of Education, "can be leaders of young people because they are also persons; and the quality of their leadership depends not only on their understanding of their pupils but also on the degree to which they themselves succeed in being persons—sufficiently mature to take a place as adults in the adult community."¹ That applies especially to Social Studies teachers. It need only be added that the attainment of maturity in a changing society involves the capacity to live responsively as well as responsibly. Maturity is a goal at which to aim, not a state of static being. The mature person is one who is in flexible adjustment with his environment; one who is socially aware, developed in his several parts, and still growing as a person. Maturity is essentially a state of *being* rather than a state of *knowing*, although ignorance is its enemy. The Social Studies teacher should be a person who strives towards understanding, adjustment, and maturity. If his appetite for life and truth is keen enough to keep him active in that ceaseless striving, then he has that quality of aliveness which is the mark of a good Social Studies teacher.

Incidentally, by working for and with his pupils, so that *they* may develop in the round as personalities, he will *himself* gain in personality. Many Social Studies teachers were at first apprehensive, and sometimes actu-

¹ *The Social Psychology of Education* (Kegan Paul), p. 75.

ally resentful, when called upon to resign the narrow educational purpose of subject-teaching for the broader one of preparation for life. Yet almost all these teachers now look back with horror at their former limited academic confinement. They feel they used to live too passively, too much in a backwater; they now feel actively abreast of the stream of life. At least a proportion of teachers in every school needs to be so. A child is lost without practical guides in the art of living who can help him find his own independence and adjustment to life. "A teacher," said Dr. C. G. Jung in a lecture on education,¹ "cannot be a passive sustainer of culture; he must also actively further culture through his own self-education." That applies especially to the Social Studies teacher. It should not only be so, but the pupils should know it to be so from the teacher's approach and attitude. They will respect him the more for it.

Sources of Material

We can now turn to the practical work of the Social Studies teacher. It will be his task to foresee demands for study material in the working out of the syllabus and either to have collected what is necessary in readiness for study units as they come along or to have found out where it can be procured.

Many sources are available that are often neglected. For example, the representatives of other countries are usually pleased to let schools have books, pamphlets and posters free if the teacher will get in touch with their offices in England. Australia House, for instance, issues a small handbook which is crammed with facts. Some

¹ This lecture appears in *Contributions to Analytical Psychology* (Kegan Paul).

firms and government departments will also supply useful material.

It is not as a rule difficult to borrow books for a form reference library for a period long enough to cover a project. Appropriate films and film strips may also be borrowed or hired. It is, incidentally, a good idea for the school to place an order with one or two producers for their series of visual aids. By this means a stock of well-arranged information on a wide variety of subjects will soon be at the disposal of the Social Studies staff. It is also wise to build up as opportunity offers a panel of people who are prepared to talk to the children about their experiences.

Gramophone records may often be used with advantage to illustrate a study unit—a famous musician or singer may be associated with the locality, or a poet from whose works recordings have been made. It often proves productive to enquire for illustrative records of various kinds, including some in foreign languages, and, if possible to establish a modest library of them. Films are, of course, available from many sources, either free or for a small charge. Museums are usually prepared to lend exhibits to illustrate a project; indeed teachers will find many museum staffs anxious to do all they can to assist them with their problems.

The gradual building up of a good school reference library should be the especial concern of the Social Studies staff. Naturally the staff as a whole will have their say in the selection of books, but if selection is made on a subject basis alone some serious gaps may be left in the library. The Social Studies staff, therefore, should concentrate upon seeing that the library is complete. Are there any good books in the library on the government, law, trade, social services and finance of Britain? Are there any books suitable for giving the young person an

idea of the course of civilization as a whole—say Van Loon's *The Story of Mankind* (Harrap), *Mankind So Far* (Sigma Books), or *The Miracle of Man* (Odham's Press)? Are there enough good atlases? By asking such questions, weaknesses in the balance of a library soon appear. Many schools unfortunately have still no room to use as a library, but few are without enough space to start a reference library, if only in a cupboard or on shelves. A Social Studies course rapidly develops interest in fact-finding. One of the first steps to take when a course is started, therefore, is either to found a reference library—however modest at first—or, if one exists already, to test it carefully for lack of completeness.

It is often possible to supply the foundation for a discussion, or to illustrate a unit of study, by arranging for all the members of a form to listen to a feature in the evening radio programmes or to see a particular film. The Social Studies teacher, therefore, should keep at hand both the *Radio Times* and the *Coming Attractions* of the local cinemas. By special arrangement, cinema managers can sometimes be prevailed upon to give advance information about the short interest films as well as the main features.

Cheap pamphlets provide a further source of background material. For example, the British Film Institute's brief papers on the work of the various people involved in making a film are invaluable aids to a project designed to improve film appreciation. Many other examples could be cited. An occasional look around the stalls and bookshops may prove very rewarding.

Every child should also have useful reference books of his own upon which the teacher can depend. It is possible to work without these, if economy or shortage prevent supplies being obtained, but each child should at least

have a good atlas, containing not only the usual physical and political maps but also world maps of vegetation and raw materials, climate and so on.

A point should, perhaps, be stressed here. Whatever supplementary material is used should be fitted appropriately into the course and framed by lead-in material and subsequent comment. School film shows of a number of unrelated educational "shorts" are of little value compared with the right film at the right time. Similarly, the time to hang up a chart is when the need for it is felt.

Learning While Teaching

The teacher will himself often need to acquire fresh knowledge in order to act as guide efficiently. One Social Studies teacher has developed a simple technique for picking up new background rapidly. He goes to the public library and looks up the subject he needs to work up in the *Encyclopædia Britannica*. He then decides on certain key words of the subject and looks these up in the indexes of likely books in the lending library. By this combined procedure he very rapidly begins to feel his way towards what he really wants to know and to discover where it can be found. Finally he takes home to read the books which seem to him most nearly to meet his requirements.

The files of newspapers and periodicals provide a contemporary history book available to everyone. For teachers in big towns there is also available the excellent service provided by the Public Relations Officers of important undertakings. In response to a phone call the author has often received up-to-date and accurate information from such services that has been of great use in designing a study unit. *Keesing's Contemporary Archives* is also a valuable service of up-to-date information.

Keeping Things Moving

Throughout the Social Studies course pupils and teachers must have a sense of achievement. The principal of a Teachers' Training College recently complained that the curriculum in schools is too often "unwittingly designed to expose failure." In contrast the Social Studies course should be planned to give the maximum possible experience of success to all participating. This means that after every term, every study unit, even after every lesson, a form and its members should be conscious of progress and achievement.

Whether experiences of achievement and growing insight are continuously satisfying depends almost entirely upon the wise planning and guidance of the teacher. Any well-run project or study unit will bring its satisfactions, but only a skilful weaving together of the units into a whole will result in the total learning-doing experience being really significant for the child. Wholeness and balance must always be striven for. Foresight in planning, careful recording of achievement, and enough flexibility to permit whatever latitude may be necessary to satisfy the young people's particular interests in a field of study, and to fill in gaps in the pattern of knowledge, will enable the teacher to gain these ends without robbing the course of its vitality and appeal by confining it within a set syllabus and sequence of study.

The teacher should all the time be experimenting with the proper use of variety. Of course projects and units should be discussed by the pupils and they should always be free to make suggestions for future work, many of which will be found to be thoroughly practicable. But the teacher's guidance will often be needed in order to clarify the situation for the young people when they are

inclined to opt for an activity without due thought. After a form—or a significant section of it—have made a success of a unit and thoroughly enjoyed it, they will often want to follow on with a precisely similar unit. They are liable in this way to run their enthusiasm to death. The teacher can open their eyes to this and save the appeal of an activity from being destroyed as a useful study method by excessive use.

But variety of method itself may militate against integrated learning. It is for the teacher to prevent this by emphasizing interrelations. A one-term's course planned to give an understanding of Britain's place in the modern world might, for instance, take this form :

1. Comparison between the Britain of 1870 and modern Britain. (Lecture and study of photographs.)
2. Study unit: *The Resources of the World* (including graphical comparison of resources of all leading countries.)
3. *Swopping in a Big Way*. (A study of imports and exports using visual aids.)
4. *America Goes Ahead*. (Two lectures from a visitor with illustrations by strip projector to show the developing power and wealth of America from 1870 to the present day.)
5. "The Big Five." (Comparative study, making files of reference, on Britain, America, U.S.S.R., France and China.)
6. *Feeding Fifty Million People*. (Study unit on Britain's food, grown and imported, including a visit to a farm and appropriate films.)
7. *What does Britain Make?* (Form divided into groups, each one studying one main industry, its location, raw materials, and production.)
8. *How Can Britain Make It?* (Discussion on Britain's import-export problem with visual aids.)

Variety of approach will keep the study fresh and appetizing, but, while working through such a sequence, young people may get so absorbed in an immediate study that they fail to see how it correlates with the others. The teacher, once alive to this possibility, will have no difficulty in keeping the overall purpose of the course well in the foreground of attention.

Form Discussions

Sometimes Current Affairs are given separate periods from Social Studies in the time-table, but it is often found better to include all such material in the Social Studies course. Whether this is so or not, discussion—not necessarily confined to current affairs—is clearly one of the activities that have a place in Social Studies. Form discussions help to develop clear thinking and articulateness as well as being a source of learning and a means of increasing understanding.

Much judgment must be used in deciding what to discuss and how to discuss it, and also at what stage to introduce discussion with a group of low ability or one which has previously been undergoing a long period of unrelieved subject teaching.

Of course, brief informal discussions occur often in ordinary lessons, but these more elaborate discussions aim at elucidating some controversial matter by a process of raising, considering, relating, and, if possible, synthesizing the points of conflict. What form can this sort of discussion usefully take in the classroom?

First we must be sure that the subject is one which has significance for the young people concerned. Children are naturally talkative. If an attempt at a discussion leaves them dumb it is because they feel it has nothing to do with them, because they lack the essential basis of know-

ledge about it, or because they are afraid of making fools of themselves and getting snubbed. We must be prepared to meet them on their own ground therefore. One form discussion group which now tackles social problems with gusto started off nine months ago with a halting argument on the *Virtues of the Crawl-stroke*. Often quite a small change of slant will make all the difference between silence and vigorous discussion. For example, a mixed form that had hardly anything to contribute on *A National Wages Policy* was thoroughly loquacious when discussing *Is James Mason Worth His Salary?* Within a short time the young people were, in fact, talking about a wages policy although, as a raw subject title, it had proved quite useless as a motivator of their interest.

Large forms make discussions more difficult, but by no means impossible. The teacher as leader should, of course, avoid dominating the thinking of his pupils. His function is to keep the discussion alive and to ask cogent questions upon the material being discussed when the interest of the young people begins to flag. He must spot every spark of conflict and fan it into flame. He should also give a good summing up so that the form feels that something has been achieved.

Of course the discussions should be led up to social matters as soon as possible. As a rule one can find a personal lead-in to a social issue. One way of doing this is by getting the form to make its mind up on an issue and then letting them see where their decision leads them. A group decision, as the study of group dynamics has shown,¹ is a stimulant to a sense of responsibility which, in its turn, promotes further decisions in order to lay down a course of action. For example, the author found that a group of fifteen-year-old boys, although they

¹ See "Frontiers in Group Dynamics" in *Human Relations*, vol. i, No. 1.

appeared to be quite indifferent to *Britain's Export Problem* as such, were all quite emphatic, when questioned, that there ought to be no increased borrowing from America. It was then possible, by getting them to accept the responsibility for their decision, to promote discussion on the alternatives, which soon brought in all the issues covered by *Britain's Export Problem*.

If it proves to be difficult to get discussion going a priming group should be tried. This involves rehearsing beforehand for a short while with four or five of the more articulate members of the form. Supposing the subject selected is *What is the Cause of Child Crime?* The teacher should get the priming group together, find out their ideas, and arrange for each to make a single point strongly: perhaps one will make the point that penalties are too light, another stress that there are too few outlets for adventure in urban life today, a third blame film-going, and a fourth the bad example of others. No verbatim scripting is necessary. Each member of the priming group must be clear about the point he is to make and the order of speaking; that is all.

When the form discussion opens the teacher will introduce the subject briefly and forcefully and then say that he has a few members of the form with him (they should be sitting on either side of him, brains-trust fashion) who will open the discussion. "Who will have first go?" he asks, and sits down. The priming group thereupon speak up in turn and make their points as arranged, each following the other promptly with the teacher throwing in a word or two here and there. When the "primers" have finished the teacher should get up at once and say, "Well, it seems to be a problem with many sides to it. I think it's now about time our brains-trusters up here stopped talking and you all joined in. Has anyone any-

thing to add?" As a rule the group as a whole will "take fire" from the priming, and, if the teacher and primers throw in a question or comment as required, a lively discussion can usually be maintained for some time.

The need to work towards the formulation of constructive conclusions should always be stressed in discussions. A technique which may be used to achieve this objective with senior pupils is to make half the form into a Royal Commission on the topic, while the other half are responsible for submitting evidence and for criticizing constructively when the findings are promulgated.

Framework of a Course

By way of recapitulation it is appropriate to set out here the outline action pattern of a Social Studies course. The teacher's success or failure will depend considerably on good design of the course, in the light of careful study of the needs, interests, aptitudes, and abilities of his pupils. Here then are the stages:

(1) The total content of the course should be considered by the teacher or teachers concerned and divided into study objectives for each year, then further divided for each term.

(2) At the beginning of each year the teacher should explain to the form what the Social Studies course sets out to do, why the knowledge and understanding it can give is needed by every adult member of society, and what parts of the course are to form the year's work. Comments and suggestions should be invited, and modifications made in the light of them.

(3) This survey of the year's work should be followed by detailed consideration of the term's work. The teacher should previously have tentatively planned and

shaped the material into a varied term's course of projects, study units, etc., as a basis for form discussion.

(4) The term's programme should be modified in the light of the discussion and the first project or unit discussed and launched. The programme, even in this final form, should be prepared only as a guide.

Each project and unit should roughly conform to the following plan; teacher and pupils participating in working out all stages.

- a* A clear decision about the precise aims of the unit.
- b* Decision as to approximate duration.
- c* Consideration of the scope of the unit and the materials available.
- d* Breaking down the unit into a number of parts.
- e* Fitting the parts to individuals and groups in accordance with their interests, aptitudes and abilities.
- f* Carrying through of allotted tasks, with as much joint consultation and exchange of information as possible.
- g* Co-ordination of the parts into a whole in accordance with the agreed aim.
- h* Follow-through.¹
- i* Discussion of the unit.
- j* Relation of what has been learnt to the term's programme as a whole.
- k* Consideration of next activity.

¹ By "follow-through" is meant action to give the study unit social significance. For example, after a survey, a report might be sent to the local paper; the result of a Housing Project might be forwarded to the borough council; or an exhibition of material produced might be given at an "At Home." Whenever possible a unit of study should be rounded off with appropriate follow-through, even if of no more ambitious a kind than a report given in assembly. The more pupils are made aware of both a social content and a social purpose in their work, the more their learning experience will be enriched for them.

Such a framework will be sufficiently flexible in use to allow discussions, visits, broadcasts, films, talks from outsiders, lessons on clear thinking, prompt consideration of items in the news, etc., to be fitted in where and when they will be most effective.

There are four more points that must be included in this outline, although they have been stressed earlier in the book :

(1) The teacher should make a Record Chart covering the study objectives for each term.

(2) Periodically he should mark off on this chart what has been successfully completed.

(3) In the light of his findings he should restore the balance of the course by link lessons or other means.

(4) The teacher should also keep a record of the whole course, including notes on what succeeds and what fails. By comparing records, Social Studies teachers can prevent *meaningless* repetition from year to year, as distinct from intentional interlocking, overlapping, and recapitulation.

Special Tasks

The Social Studies teacher is in an ideal situation to fulfil three special tasks in the interest of the child.

He should build up teacher co-operation with the objective of integrating the subject courses with the Social Studies course. At any rate at first, he will have to take the initiative in this. His suggestions may be resented for a time, but, if he makes it clear that he is as eager to modify his plans to suit those of the subject teachers as he is to get them to modify theirs, give-and-take will soon develop. In the Secondary Modern school, where academic pressure is less, co-operation for integrating the curriculum can develop rapidly if the Social Studies

staff will give a lead. Many Grammar schools have also succeeded in developing a high degree of co-operation in working out an integrated curriculum.

The second special task is to keep alive in the children's minds by steady emphasis the standards of democratic citizenship: tolerance, intellectual adventurousness, honesty, co-operation, a sense of responsibility, consideration for others, social purpose. The manner of working out a Social Studies course can make all the difference to the development of a child's character. In fact the good Social Studies teacher is not only teaching young people how to understand and adapt themselves to their environment in a creative relationship; he is also making mature men and women of them.

The teacher's third special task is to do all he can to develop the young person's natural wonder and delight in the world around him. Education in the past has too often presented truth in a drab unappetizing form. The Social Studies teacher is especially well placed to show the young person that learning is an exciting part of living, and that life itself is good.

Background Books

During lecture courses for teachers, and in talks with teacher and student groups, the author has frequently been asked a question which goes something like this: "I would like to teach Social Studies but I feel my whole background is wrong. What should I read in order to catch up with the new approach?" Since, perhaps, some readers of this book may feel the same, here is the list which the writer suggests on these occasions:

Total Education by M. L. Jacks. (Kegan Paul)

Informal Education by J. Macalister Brew. (Faber and Faber)

The Social Psychology of Education by C. M. Fleming.

(Kegan Paul)

New Teaching for a New Age by A. H. T. Glover.

(Nelson)

The author has found these four books in combination to provide a thorough background of the new approach to education for those who feel themselves rather out of touch. To this list, for those who are especially interested in the school as a community and in inter-personal relations within the school, may be added *Democracy in School Life*, a Report of the Association for Education in Citizenship (Oxford University Press). *The Needs of Youth in These Times*, a Report of the Scottish Youth Advisory Committee (H.M. Stationery Office, Edinburgh) is also recommended for supplementary reading.

The teacher who is unfamiliar with economics will benefit from reading a good simple outline such as *The Social Framework* by J. R. Hicks (Oxford University Press) or *Income* by A. C. Pigou (Macmillan).

Seven further books that the Social Studies teacher will find extremely helpful are :

Film by Roger Manvell. (Penguin)

Straight and Crooked Thinking by Robert H. Thouless. (English Universities Press)

How To Find Out by Lionel McColvin. (National Book League)

The School Looks Around by J. Blanco White and Elizabeth Layton (Longmans, for the Association for Education in Citizenship)

Groundwork for Citizenship by F. R. Kersley. (Pitman)

Material for Visual Education. (Daily Mail School Aid Publication)

A Handbook of Social Studies by David Jordan and Joan Dray (Methuen)

CHAPTER VIII

ASSESSING PROGRESS

ONE hang-over from that particular misconception of progressive education which believes all solid work and the testing of it to be crimes against the nature of a child is the view that Social Studies are primarily to be enjoyed and must, therefore, be saved from examination in any form.

Certainly Social Studies should be enjoyed, and certainly it would be quite wrong to treat their content as fixed and finished and therefore ripe for incarceration within the confines of a narrow examination syllabus. But far from testing as such being to the detriment of Social Studies, it is only by appropriate evaluation of results that we can learn to remedy our errors and approach more nearly to our objectives. This chapter, therefore, will deal with a further special function of the Social Studies teacher, that of devising methods of measuring his success in terms of his objectives.

Why do we Need to Test?

Traditional examination methods are today, if not actually in disrepute, at any rate more suspect as efficient testing mechanisms than they have ever been before. The reason for this decline in prestige is not that orthodox mechanisms have no longer a function but that they have been forced beyond their usefulness in the past. To demand matriculation for a shop-assistant, for instance,

is to presume a power of selection in a merely academic examination which is quite outside its scope. What a shop-assistant needs in her occupation is a modicum of arithmetic, a fair general knowledge, exact information about the goods she handles and, above all, a liking for people and skill with human relationships. These necessary qualities and attainments are not to be measured by an examination designed as a preliminary to entering college.

Of late years the need of the Services and of industry to suit the man to the job has resulted in a complete rethinking of the examination position, so that nowadays the need is fully recognized to make the examination accord with what it is desired to examine. In fact it is now realized that the first step in all examining should be to decide precisely what is the purpose behind the course of study being followed, and then to assess to what extent the purpose is achieved. Thus the examination simultaneously evaluates the efficiency both of the examinee and also of the course he has been through.

This gives us a clue to the sort of testing which is appropriate to Social Studies. It also shows why testing is important. We have decided what a Social Studies course should be designed to do. Our tests, then, must be devised to see to what extent the young people pursuing the course are acquiring the knowledge, attitudes and attributes which we wish them to gain from their Social Studies. If the tests are properly devised to do this, they will also show us the weaknesses of the course itself. Testing of those following a Social Studies course and evaluation of the course as such should be a constant reciprocal process, which should result in such modification of content and method that the acme of efficiency in attaining our purpose may be ever more nearly approached.

What do we Need to Test?

At the close of the first chapter were set out the minimum purposes of a Social Studies course. In order to save the reader the trouble of looking back we will repeat them here. It will help to read them again carefully, as a good deal of ground has been covered since they were first given. The reader will probably wish to modify them somewhat, but they will at least suffice as our starting-point.

1. To combine the material of History, Geography and Civics, together with relevant material from other subject fields, into a single integrated background course, through which the child can come to appreciate the interrelatedness of all the elements of his environment and to feel himself to be closely associated with the past and present struggles and achievements of mankind, and to have a personal contribution to make towards future progress.

2. To help co-ordinate the curriculum as a whole by serving as a background for specialist courses, and as a field of practice for basic skills.

3. To build up social awareness, a sense of responsibility, and an understanding of human relations, by helping to provide those elements of social education that can no longer be fully supplied by the home environment.

4. To offer abundant opportunities for active learning, personal achievement, participation in group work, and, in general, for the development of the self through the exploration of the environment.

5. To foster attitudes to knowledge, life, and learning that are appropriate to the present day, and especially to promote understanding of all history and all human experience as a process of change and development.

6. To foster the development of spontaneity, self-reliance, flexibility of mind, clear thinking, tolerance, initiative, articulateness, adventurousness of outlook, courage in

the face of new problems, enjoyment of creative activity, sound standards of action and appreciation, world-mindedness, a sense of purpose, and a philosophy of life.

7. To provide a pattern and experience of study that will serve as a foundation and stimulus for continuing education in adult years.

We see that the objectives of the course may be grouped under four main headings :

1. To impart certain essential background information.
2. To establish in the minds of young people an understanding of the relationships existing between them and the environment of humanity, personal and impersonal, past and present.
3. To develop aptitudes and attitudes appropriate to a citizen of the modern world.
4. To develop the standards, and qualities of character, upon which democracy, civilization, and personal effectiveness and happiness together depend.

In practice these four divisions are to some extent artificial. Social Studies should provide something of them all in every learning experience offered to the young person. But we shall find such division useful in working out techniques for measuring attainment.

Thus under the first heading we need to ask ourselves such questions as :

1. Do the young people know about the life of their neighbourhood and how it is conducted?

2. Do they know in outline the function and development of the chief institutions and activities of modern civilization?

3. Have they an adequate picture of the life of the region and the nation?

4. Have they a reasonable general knowledge of the physical features, climate, and raw materials of the world?

5. Do they know what are the chief problems of the modern world?

6. Do they know in outline how British government, law and commerce work, and how to perform the duties of a citizen in a democracy? . . .

Under the second heading we shall need to inquire :

1. Do they understand the primary interrelations between the neighbourhood in which they live, the region, the country and the world?

2. Do they understand the main contrasts and relationships between existing civilization and past civilizations?

3. Do they see how industry and agriculture are inter-related?

4. Do they understand the relationship between their personal life and experience and the needs and strivings of the modern world?

5. Do they understand something of the relationships of the world to the universe (in both time and space)?

6. Have they grasped that life is an ever-evolving process of which they are a part and to which they have a contribution to make? . . .

Such questions as the following are relevant to the third heading :

1. Are their horizons broadening as a result of their learning experiences?

2. Are they feeling more significant as contributors to the life of the world?

3. Have they come to see that freedom in society depends upon the effective participation of the individuals composing it?

4. Are they learning to think clearly and courageously?

5. Do they approach human knowledge as relative rather than absolute?

6. Are they sufficiently world-minded? . . .

Finally, of the fourth point we need to ask :

1. Are they learning to be co-operative?
2. Are they acquiring confidence and competence in their human relations.
3. Do they understand the importance of honesty, integrity, tolerance, and consideration for others?
4. Is their sense of social responsibility developing?
5. Are they learning to be self-reliant, thorough and conscientious in tackling problems?
6. Are they learning to be adventurous in outlook and flexible in mind? . . .

These suggestions are far from complete. But the Social Studies teacher should find no difficulty in preparing a complete list of questions to cover the whole purpose of the course he has designed. He will find such a list a great help both as a guide to testing and as a means of checking results. So far as the checking is concerned, he will need to ask one or two further questions such as :

1. Is the course as a whole providing a complete pattern of learning and understanding?
2. Is the course so planned that after every lesson every child gets a sense of having "got somewhere"—of having learnt or achieved something that seems worth-while to him?
3. Are both poor and able children fully extended by their part in the study units?
4. Is each child being taught as much as he can absorb about his relations with his total environment and the implications of his personal life within the twentieth-century scene?

How Shall we Test?

It will be seen that, if we are to examine Social Studies properly, we cannot confine ourselves to the orthodox question-and-answer procedure because material that is

retained by the child in a form reproducible in this way is only a fraction of what the course is designed to impart. Any testing must examine not only what pupils know but also what they are becoming. Testing must measure their powers of reasoning and solving problems along with their understanding and awareness. To have a more limited purpose in our tests than the assessment of overall progress towards maturity will be a threat to the success of the whole course, because a subject is inevitably shaped by the technique used to examine it. Moreover, the testing must be designed to enable the child to use his knowledge and gain a sense of achievement by doing so. It must not be in a form that upsets his peace of mind; it must not threaten failure. The testing should itself be an enjoyable part of a course all of which is enjoyed.

Can any valid test be fun? Certainly not unless we start by forgetting the traditional techniques. But if we manage to do that and face the problem of tests in terms of the objectives which the course seeks to achieve, all sorts of possibilities appear. The following are a few suggestions which the teacher of Social Studies will be able to build upon and modify to suit his particular circumstances :

SPOTTING THE ERROR. The pupil is given a list of statements containing errors of fact or reasoning which he is asked to rectify; for example :

(a) The climate is warmest at the Equator because the crust of the Earth is thinnest there.

(b) When a man has been a magistrate for a long enough period he is made a judge.

(c) Wireless is used for long-distance communication because sound travels very fast.

The completeness with which a young person corrects such errors will reveal a good deal about his knowledge and reasoning power. The resemblance of this sort of test to a puzzle quiz stimulates the young person to do his best. Incidentally, it is better to have an error in every sentence and not to confuse the issue by having some correct and some incorrect statements; not, at any rate, until an advanced stage has been reached.

PROBLEM SITUATIONS. The young person is given details of an imaginary situation and asked to provide a remedy, the material necessary to do this having been handled in the course. For instance: "The village of Hedgeborn draws its water partly from wells and partly from the river which runs near the village. There is an outbreak of typhoid one summer. What is likely to have caused this? What steps do you think should be taken to prevent a recurrence?"

IMAGINARY PLACES. The map of an area may be reproduced with details of latitude and longitude, physical features, quality and location of raw materials, etc. A series of questions requiring short answers based on observation of the map, and the use of material previously dealt with in study units, may then be set, such as:

1. The country of Jacktopia desires to develop its industries. Where would be the best place to build a new factory area? Why?

2. How could Jacktopia increase its home food production?

3. Which of the three holiday resorts marked is likely to have most sunshine? Why?

4. If a new road is needed to run from the South to the North, what route do you suggest it should follow?

The advantage of making the map of an imaginary country is that it may be drawn to suit the particular needs of the question; and also that young people seem to find a problem so set more stimulating. Of course, at a later stage, they can graduate to analysing existing areas.

WHAT CAUSES IT? In this test the pupil is asked to explain something in common experience which is nevertheless due to a number of causes. The test lies in seeing how many of the factors involved will be spotted by the pupil. For instance, if a pupil is asked what enables a man to stand still on a wire twenty feet above the ground he can answer just "a sense of balance," or he may say "a sense of balance that has been trained by practice," or he may say "man is able to perform feats of balance because of the semicircular canals in his ears which are the chief centres of the sense of balance. If the sense of balance is trained, it is possible for a man to stand still on a high wire, but to do so he will need to be physically fit besides being well-trained and self-confident, because the sense of balance deteriorates if a man is tired, ill, or unfit." To such a question, of course, answers of any length are possible from a word or two to long scientific treatises.

Similar questions would be "What are shoes made of?" "What does man need to keep him alive?" "Why do countries go to war?" "What would you say a human being needed to be happy?"

TESTS OF SOCIAL UNDERSTANDING. In this test a problem is posed and several answers given. The young person is asked to tick the solutions he believes to be best and put a cross against those he disapproves of. Thus the problem might be: "Britain is short of fuel and power for industries and transport. What do you think are the best ways to remedy this?"

1. Make more buses, motor-cars and steam engines?
2. Harness the tides?
3. Import more petrol?
4. Make criminals work in the coal mines?
5. Breed more horses?
6. Pay miners more money to work harder?
7. Cut down trees for fuel?
8. Ration coal, electricity and gas?

That is a fairly simple test but more searching problems can readily be thought out. For example: "Scientists are making more and more dangerous discoveries. What should we do to protect ourselves from them?"

1. Shoot all the scientists?
2. Forbid scientists to work on such things as atom bombs?
3. Make all new scientific knowledge available to the whole world?
4. Set up a committee of experts to watch developments and suppress all dangerous discoveries?
5. Impose penalties for all new discoveries that are dangerous?
6. Set up a world government responsible for keeping an eye on all new discoveries?
7. Set up a special C.I.D. to watch what is going on in the science laboratories?
8. Form an international union of scientists with power to stop their discoveries from being used for bad purposes?

SIFTING SLOGANS. The young person is given a list of slogans and common sayings and asked to comment upon their truth, e.g.:

1. Out of sight, out of mind.
2. Every man has his price.
3. Too many cooks spoil the broth.
4. We're ten thousand strong and we can't all be wrong.
5. You can't change human nature.
6. Little things please little minds.

Of course, the answers to such tests will not show if the examinee is "right" or "wrong." But they will reveal whether the young person is capable of thinking straight about such problems. Half a dozen questions of this type will plainly show whether he is thinking socially or personally; whether he is developing consistent stan-

dards to help his judgment, or whether his response to each new problem is haphazard. Problems and language can be suited to groups of any standard. A useful supplementary to this sort of test is to ask the examinee to give his own solution if he does not approve of any of those suggested.

The above tests are given only as samples of techniques that have produced worth-while results in practice, but they will suffice to show in what quite simple ways knowledge, understanding, attitudes and qualities may be simultaneously explored. The Social Studies teacher should regard himself as an innovator in techniques of testing and should experiment until he has found methods of getting at what he wants to know (which should, of course, always include an assessment of whether or not his pupils are developing maturity as persons relative to their natural capacities).

Once the old attitude to tests has been replaced by one of co-operative interest on the part of the pupils, a proportion of orthodox tests for retained knowledge may usefully be included. But the pupils must always feel that the objective of testing is to help them, and to reveal their progress to them; not to expose their ignorance.

After a series of tests, the teacher should express his pleasure at what has been attained, explain what weaknesses have been revealed, and invite discussion on how those weaknesses may be overcome. There should, of course, be no placing in form orders. Each child should feel himself to be in competition with himself, not with others, when he sits down to a Social Studies test or tests. A young person is always pleased to know where he is with his work; what he hates is being shown how bad he is. And in that children and adults are in no way different.

CHAPTER IX

THE FINAL YEAR

AT THE present time, and until the importance of Social Studies has been universally appreciated, schools will often find themselves up against the problem of concentrating the whole of a Social Studies course into a comparatively short period. Many Secondary Modern schools are so placed. Up to the present they have perhaps not been running Social Studies courses; now they have their pupils for an extra year with the dual problem to be tackled of keeping them interested in school work and of using the extra time effectively to prepare them for life.

The two problems are really one. Even when the leaving age was fourteen it was often found difficult to keep the young people interested during the final year because they were fretting to be rid of school and could see little in the work they were doing that had any relation to life out in the world that lay only a few months ahead. School, in fact, once the leaving date was in sight, appeared to the pupils to be no more than "kiddy stuff," and from that point their co-operation was rapidly withdrawn. Headmasters used to refer to it as "the last-year problem." That problem remains in a more acute form than ever. But it can be removed, or greatly reduced, if the second problem is successfully tackled—how to plan the last year as a preparation for adult life.

We begin to see, then, what the last year must set out to do, whether it is a concentrated course hurried into

being as an emergency measure or whether it is the final year of a complete Social Studies course. It must be a sort of pre-entry year for life, during which the course is orientated towards the coming adult world and during which gaps still existing in background knowledge and understanding are filled in.

The young people will be motivated to co-operate in such a course to the extent that it appears to them to supply worth-while training for life. This, in its turn, indicates how the content should be selected and planned. During the pre-adult period, the adolescent is especially motivated by the following :

1. The desire to acquire the skills needed to get on in adult life.
2. Eagerness to know where he stands in relation to the affairs of men in general.
3. Curiosity about life as a whole.
4. Desire to know how to get along with other people, and how to behave like an adult in all human associations.
5. Desire to know about the adult life of his neighbourhood.
6. Interest in exploring the careers open to him.
7. Love of achievement.
8. Delight in exercising his own special aptitudes.

There need be no abyss, as is sometimes the case, between what the young person wants to know and what the teacher thinks he ought to. It is largely a matter of approach. Young men who proved remarkably resistant to English lessons at school settled down into ardent students of reading and penmanship in the Army schools as soon as it was put to them that it was much more fun to read and write your own letters than to have to depend

upon the sergeant as go-between. Similarly it has been found that young people in their final year will apply themselves to their studies readily enough if the slant of approach is forward towards competent personal and social life in the adult world, not backwards towards dependence and childhood.

For such an approach to achieve its purpose, it follows that the young people must themselves be treated as persons and with respect. The writer recently heard a mother say about her rather dull son: "I've told him what a duffer people will think him when he's grown up, but it doesn't seem to make any difference." Naturally it did not. She should instead have shown her son how much more enjoyable he would find life when he had mastered reading. She should have met him on the friendly terms of people talking together about life and its problems. The boy would then have been much more likely to make a positive response.

All teachers, teachers of Social Studies especially, and more especially than ever during the final year, must be careful to found their relations with their pupils upon mutual respect. If we can succeed in establishing such a relationship, and if we can whet the appetite of the young people for abundant living, and show them that we can help them to grasp it, the problem of how to maintain co-operative effort will disappear. Moreover we shall develop in the young people an attitude to authority which will stand them in good stead throughout life.

Content of the Final-year Course

It would be of no practical value to outline in detail a suggested Social Studies course for the final year. Content must depend on the nature of previous work, upon the intelligence level of the young people concerned, and

upon other factors. Much of what has been written earlier in this book is just as relevant for the last year as for any other period of the school career. Our objectives in Social Studies are the same if we have one year to attain them as if we have four. What will differ is the degree of detail it is possible to give and the slant of approach. It will be more useful, therefore, to review the "musts" for the final year and to leave each teacher to work out a suitable course, always remembering that it is better to do a little well rather than a lot scrappily. At the end of the final year the young people must understand enough of their world and their relations with it to feel secure in the role they have to play; they must be equipped for participant citizenship, with a self-confident general ability promoting a lively anticipation of what life may hold in store. If that is not so, we have failed. We shall fail if we attempt too much.

THE "MUSTS"

People will not all agree about what a young person needs to know on the threshold of adult life. The "musts" here suggested, therefore, are as tentative and general as any such list should be in a field where too little research has yet been done for certainty to be possible. Nevertheless, it is hard to see how any young adult can face life confidently with *less*. Here then is a suggested minimum list of "musts" which have to be covered—or covered again at a higher level—if they have not been thoroughly dealt with earlier in the course:

1. Orientation to the history, geography and social and economic life of the locality, region, and country.¹
2. Study of Britain's productive resources and economic position in the world today.

¹ A useful article on "Neighbourhood Studies for the Extra Year" by F. J. Nicholson, Headmaster of Lapage Boys' Modern School, Bradford, may be found in the *Journal of Education* for September 1947.

3. Study of balance of power in the modern world.
4. Study of the problems of the modern world, including the attainment of world unity.
5. Study of the duties of the democratic citizen, and how to practise them (basic citizen economics should be included).
6. Training in clear thought and articulateness, including the analysis of press reports, propaganda, advertisements, and race prejudice.
7. Study of the country's government, legal system, social services, and political parties.
8. Exploration of the openings for careers.
9. Study of the problems of human relationships.
10. The intelligent appreciation of films and radio.

Methods

There are no methods especially appropriate to the final year. Material should be handled in the study units along the lines already suggested—by active study, visits, etc., with ample variety of approach. Such differences of method as may be necessary will result from the need, if it exists, to do a great deal in a short time. This may make desirable an increased use of visual aids, including films.

There are two other relevant points. As the young people are so near the adult world they will benefit especially from talks from people who are successfully established in the world. Study of local industry may be made very vivid indeed by combining classroom study with visits to factories and with talks from those engaged in the various industries. By such a combination the young people will learn a great deal at the same time as clarifying their ideas about the functions of industry and whether it offers openings that appeal to them.

The second point is that of variety. If a slump of

interest sets in during the final year it is often difficult to re-arouse eagerness to learn. The teacher, therefore, should always keep one or two surprises ready so that, if the young people start to show indifference, they can be stabbed wide awake again by the stimulus of a new approach.

MORE "MUSTS"

The last year's course cannot be accepted as satisfactory if it merely supplies information. It must also be simultaneously developing—or conferring—the right attitudes to life. During the last year, therefore, the Social Studies course must be so planned as to build up in the minds and hearts of the young people :

1. An awareness of the many-sidedness of truth and life.
2. An understanding of the interrelatedness of things.
3. An apprehension of reality as something that is changing and developing—as a becoming in which everything and everybody has a role to fill and a contribution to make.
4. Wonder and widening interests. Hope and vision.
5. The realization that isolated living is not only impossible but misguided and wrong.
6. The realization that everyone and everything matters, and that everyone has a responsibility for influencing the course of events.
7. An understanding of co-operation as the most creative force in the world (this should be gained both through material studied and through the experience of co-operative achievement).
8. An appreciation of the values of civilization and why they are so highly respected.
9. Love of life and confidence in mankind.

Happiness and effectiveness, let it be remembered, are the result of the full functioning of the whole self, in continuous adjustment with the changing conditions of

life, and for a purpose that is social as well as personal. This being so, we see how much more than schooling a school can offer to its pupils during their final year. It can, if it will, open the gates of the road to life. The school's objective should be no less than that; the objective of Social Studies is no less than that.

POSTSCRIPT

WHY, SOME ask, go in for these comparatively untested new methods—*now*?

Man is at present, the scientists tell us, undergoing a transformation in his mode of life such as only occurs every ten thousand years or so. To anyone who dares to open his eyes it is surely clear that something quite tremendous is going on around us : nuclear fission, new ways of conquering disease, the attainment of immense speeds of travel, instantaneous world-wide communication, the uncovering of the unconscious elements of man's mental life, the discovery of principles governing social and group life of which man has hitherto been unaware, the inching forward towards world organization. . . . On all hands is to be observed the release of great new opportunities for fuller, warmer, more creative human life.

But on all hands we also observe that doors are being slammed on these opportunities. There is the scientific assurance of a world around the corner in which man will be rid for ever of the material shortages which obstruct the full flowering of his physical, mental, and spiritual being. Simultaneously with the development of these opportunities, there have grown up within society huge machines of organization that dwarf individuality and, like Frankenstein's monster, threaten the humanity whose struggles and genius created them. Civilization cannot advance without large-scale organization ; it cannot survive if individuality is destroyed. That is the paradox.

Education, at such a time, cannot remain static. It must be transformed if it is to be effective. Which does not mean merely more of what we have had. The situation demands new objectives for education, new approaches, a fresh vision; nothing less than rebirth. Since what is happening today is of a magnitude unparalleled in history, is it likely that education could remain what it has been and still serve as well?

In what way must education be transformed? He would be bold who expected to know the whole answer. But this, surely, we can be certain about. At such a time men need awareness as never before; a feeling of kinship with the struggle; a consciousness of personal value and of personal role; belief in man; confidence in life; a sense of values and of high purpose. We know those things are needed not only because they are good in themselves, but because, for lack of them, men and women in their thousands are being knocked out of the race of life by maladjustment, neurosis, breakdown. Other men and women seek to escape by building their own mock-ivory towers of introspective isolation, madness, or crime, as a flight from the responsibilities of social living. The evidence pours in that man breaks mentally and morally—and sometimes physically too—because he is isolated, uprooted, unaware of his social relations, ignorant of his own useful role, deprived of hope and vision, lost like a blind man in an unknown city. Man has created a complexity that frustrates him. He feels insecure, guilty, rejected. He seeks security in flight—or in aggression.

The situation as a whole, and these truths that arise from it, measure the teacher's significance today. They provide the urgency for bold experiment and the reason why humanity needs every teacher to partner his skill in making scholars with an equal skill in making people.

We have to keep individuality alive and effective within the impersonal, mechanized hugeness of the modern world. Unless we succeed in that, we cannot hope that civilization will survive the clash of forces generated from within these mechanistic agglomerations of men and things. Humanity can be saved only by an increase of humanity—humanity that is trained, equipped, informed, aware, and, therefore, effective—humanity so strong in its own right, and so socially conscious, that the depersonalized mechanisms of our age will be kept personal by the human vitality of the individuals and groups within them. To achieve that is not the task *only* of the schools; but, unless the schools undertake their very big share of it, it cannot be accomplished.

Teachers today are right in the front line in the battle of civilization. They can bring up the reinforcements if they will. They can vastly increase the numbers of young people who enter adulthood fully aware of their world and their role; who are skilled to maintain adjustment within a changing environment; who are literate and competent not only as wage-earners and students but also as men and citizens. But the old tools will not do, nor the old strategy. Thus the present, for all its difficulty, is the right time for fundamental changes in educational methods. Let us be courageous at all costs. The battle ahead of mankind will not be won without daring.

INDEX

- Achievement, 25, 42, 142, 154
- Active study, 5, 25, 64, 65, 154
- Adjustment, 31
- Adler, Dr. A., 41
- Adolescent, 19, 28, 30, 31, 38, 39, 43, 164
- Adventurousness in outlook, 5, 18, 25, 154
- Age-range, 2
- Aggression, 23
- Aims, *see* Purpose
- Apathy, 1, 27
- Appetitive phases, 129
- Approach, 30, 36, 39, 165
- Aptitudes, 107, 155
- Area of competence, 41
- Art, 30, 31
- Articulateness, 25, 154
- Ashby, Professor, 16
- Assembly, 7, 63, 65
- Assessment, 61, 152
- Atlases, 140, 141
- Atomization of society, 48, 134
- Attainment, 16, 59, 60, 61, 62
- Attitudes, 8, 11, 23, 25, 107, 154, 155
- Australia, 4, 5, 21, 69, 72, 76
- Awareness, 10, 12, 25, 31, 154

- Background, 10, 11, 59, 150, 155
- Backward child, 15, 36, 38
- Balance, 41, 59, 129
- Books, 138, 139-40, 150-1
- Breadth, 19, 20, 21, 43
- Brew, Dr. J. M., 56, 150
- Bulk of material, 55
- Bureau of Current Affairs, 57
- Burt, Sir Cyril, 33, 40

- Calculation, 21
- Canada, 69
- Child-centred education, 40

- Citizenship, 12, 150
- Civics, 3, 5, 19, 25, 154
- Civic Week, 6
- Civilization, relationship with, 51, 52, 132
- Clarity, 19, 25, 154
- Community life, 11
- Content of course, 3, 19, 45, 55, 131, 147, 165-7
- Contrast, 35, 36
- Co-operation, 12, 14, 15, 22, 24, 55, 63, 149
- Co-ordination, 25, 55, 154
- Correlation, 41, 42
- Country, relationship with one's, 51, 100
- Courage, 25, 155
- Creative activity, 24, 25, 27, 155
- Culture, 11
- Current affairs, 97, 144
- Curriculum, 11, 17, 20, 41, 142

- Diffusion, 45, 47
- Discipline, 19
- Discouragement, 33
- Discoverers' Club, 104-6
- Discussion, 63, 64, 144
- Drama, 31
- Dull child, 14, 15, 28, 33, 101

- Economics, 6, 57, 101
- Educational process, 20, 44, 48, 49, 107
- Educational value, 8, 21
- Eight-year Study, 89-90
- Energy of pupil, 26, 43
- English, 4, 6, 20, 21, 30, 31, 135
- Environment, 6, 21, 25, 33, 47, 49, 155
- Examinations, 4, 152, 153
- Experts' Panel, 96
- Exploration, 42

- Farming, 94
 Films, 47, 56, 95, 139, 140, 141
 Final year, 163
 Fleming, Dr. C. M., 129, 137, 151
 Flexibility, 16, 17, 25, 109, 129, 130, 154
 Follow-through, 148
 Form atmosphere, 32, 33
 Form log book, xviii, 7, 91
 Form reference book, xvii, 32, 58, 81, 91
 Framework of course, 147-9
 Frustration, 23
 Fun in learning, 40, 42
 Function of Social Studies, 3, 19
 Game-like activities, 57
 General education, 3, 19, 21
 Geography, 3, 5, 6, 19, 21, 25, 38, 135, 154
 Glover, A. H. T., 87, 151
 Grammar School, 1, 3, 4, 150
 Gramophone records, 139
 Group achievement, 15, 23
 Group dynamics, 145
 Group study, 25, 32, 33, 64, 154
 Guilt feelings, 23
 Harvard Report, 20, 107
 Head Teacher, 7, 65, 81, 93
 Hicks, J. R., 151
 History, 3, 4, 5, 6, 19, 21, 25, 38, 135, 154
 Human relations, 27
 Huxley, Dr. Julian, 24
 Identification, 4, 8, 11
 Imitation, 9, 11
 Incentive, 26
 Industrial psychology, 27
 Initiation of course, 63
 Initiative, 13, 25, 154
 Institutions, 1, 6
 Integration, 2, 55, 59, 128, 131, 149
 Interest, 27, 41, 95
 International Understanding, 22, 23
 Interpreters, 133-4
 Interrelatedness, 3, 25, 37, 60, 107, 108
 I.Q., 1, 9
 Isolate, 22, 48
 Jacks, M. L., 41, 133, 150
 Jung, Dr. C. G., 138
 Keeping up to date, 135-6
 Knowledge, 3, 11, 49
 Laziness, 27
 Learning to live, 42, 43, 150
 Learning while teaching, 141
 Leisure, 42
 Library, Public, 81, 136, 141
 Life, relationship with stream of, 51
 Link lessons, 59, 60
 Locality, relationship with, 50
 Man-in-community, 49, 53
 Mannheim, Karl, 2
 Many-sidedness, 16, 21, 130
 Material for course, 34, 46-7, 138
 Mathematics, 4, 20, 30
 Maturity, advance to, 22, 42, 137
 Mead, Margaret, 36
 Methods, 167
 Modern School, 3, 42, 57, 60, 101, 149, 163
 Motivation, 26, 28, 29, 30, 31, 34, 35, 38, 43, 164
 Music, 31
 New Zealand, 67
 News, 97, 135
 Nicholson, F. J., 166
 Objectives, 8, 25, 59, 155, 166-9
 Optional periods, 65, 66
 Orientation, 3, 11
 Overcrowding of syllabus, 44
 Participation, 65
 Pattern, 25, 54, 71, 155
 Perception, 56
 Periods of study, 66
 Personal contribution, 11
 Personal Project, xvii
 Personal Record Book, xviii, 32, 58, 91, 92

- Personal Study Book, xvii, 91, 93
 Personalization, 38
 Personality, 49, 137
 Pestalozzi, 41
 Philosophy of life, 25, 155
 Pigou, A. C., 151
 Planning, 34, 44, 142, 148
 Points of practice, 54, 85, 128
 Priming group, 146
 Problem approach, 13, 39
 Project, xvii, 6, 15, 32, 58, 64, 76
 Projection, 38
 Purpose, 19, 25, 54, 67-70, 155

 Qualities for teaching, 134-5

 Radio, 56, 139, 140
 Record Book, 91
 Record Chart, 58, 149
 Reference library, 91, 139
 Relationships, 3, 11, 32, 37, 43, 47, 48, 50-4, 62, 134
 Relativity of learning, 13
 Religious instruction, xv, 30
 Reporter service, 94
 Responsibility, 13, 14, 25
 Revolutionary era, 1, 132
 Reward-and-punishment, 26
 Rigidity in course, 45, 47
 Role of individual, 22
 Roll of Honour, 103

 Sample project, 6, 76-7
 School community, 65
 Science, 30
 Scotland, 8
 Scrap book, xvii, 15, 91
 Selection, 18, 128
 Self-government, 12
 Self-reliance, 14, 25, 154
 Shipping, 98
 Skills, 10, 11, 20, 21

 Social content, 12
 Social education, 9, 11, 12, 25
 Social maturity, 22
 Social structure, 22
 Sources, 138-41
 Specialist study, 19, 20, 21, 43
 Spontaneity, 16, 17, 25, 154
 Standards, 11, 19, 25, 155
 Study Book, 91, 93
 Study Units, xvii, 5, 19, 21, 45, 47, 57, 58, 109
 Subject-fields, 11, 12, 30
 Subject-learning, 17, 29, 32, 33
 Syllabus, 44-7, 50-4, 58, 63, 166-7

 Teacher, 55, 58, 63, 132, 141
 Technical School, 4
 Technique, 34, 56, 131
 Testing, 60, 152, 153, 154, 157-62
 Time, relationship with, 54
 Time Book, 103
 Time-scale, 102
 Time-sense, 102
 Tolerance, 25, 154
 Topic, *see* Study Unit
 Topicality, 35, 100
 Town child, 10
 Transition to Social Studies Course, 65

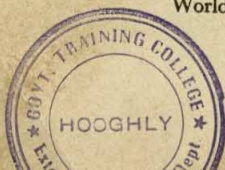
 Understanding, 11, 25, 134, 155
 Universe, relationship with, 52
 U.S.A., 89

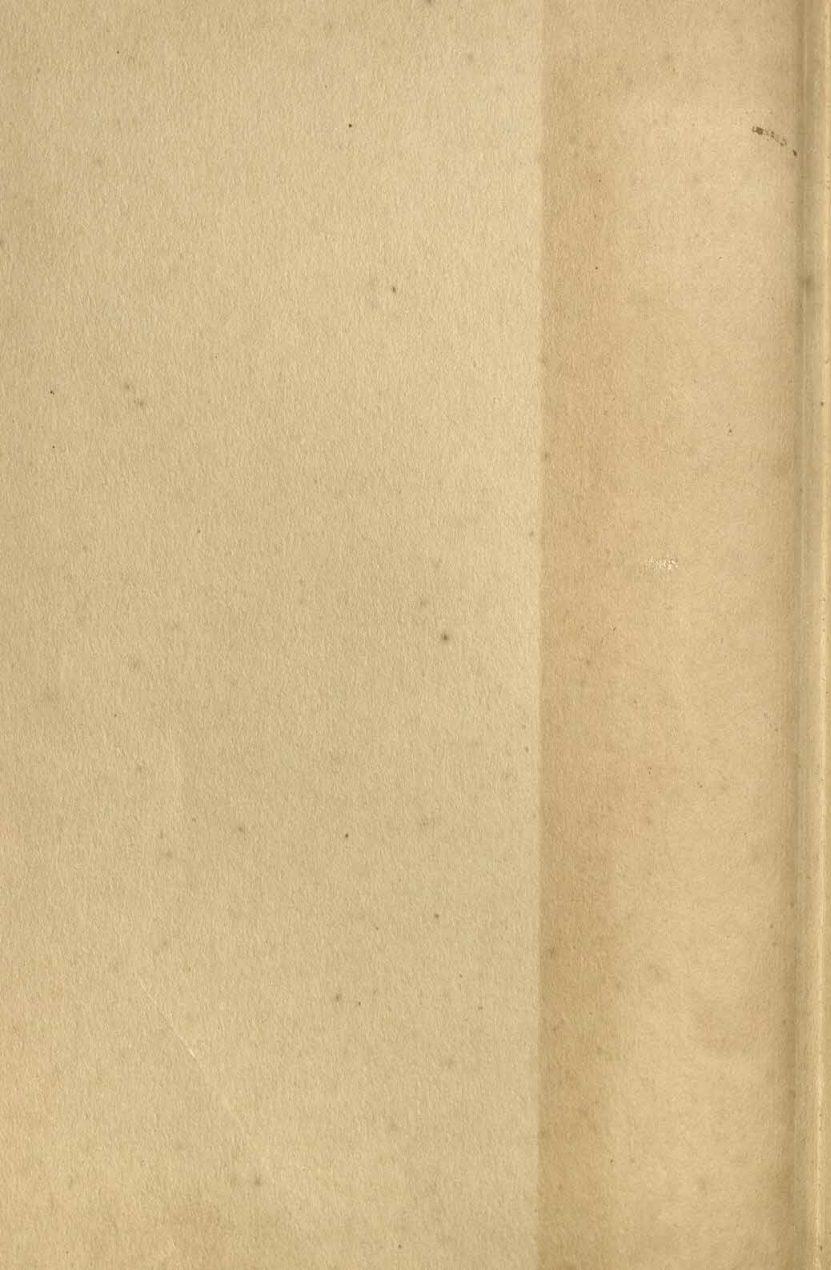
 Values, 19
 Variety, 88, 142, 167
 Visits, 7, 64, 167
 Visual aids, 57, 139, 167

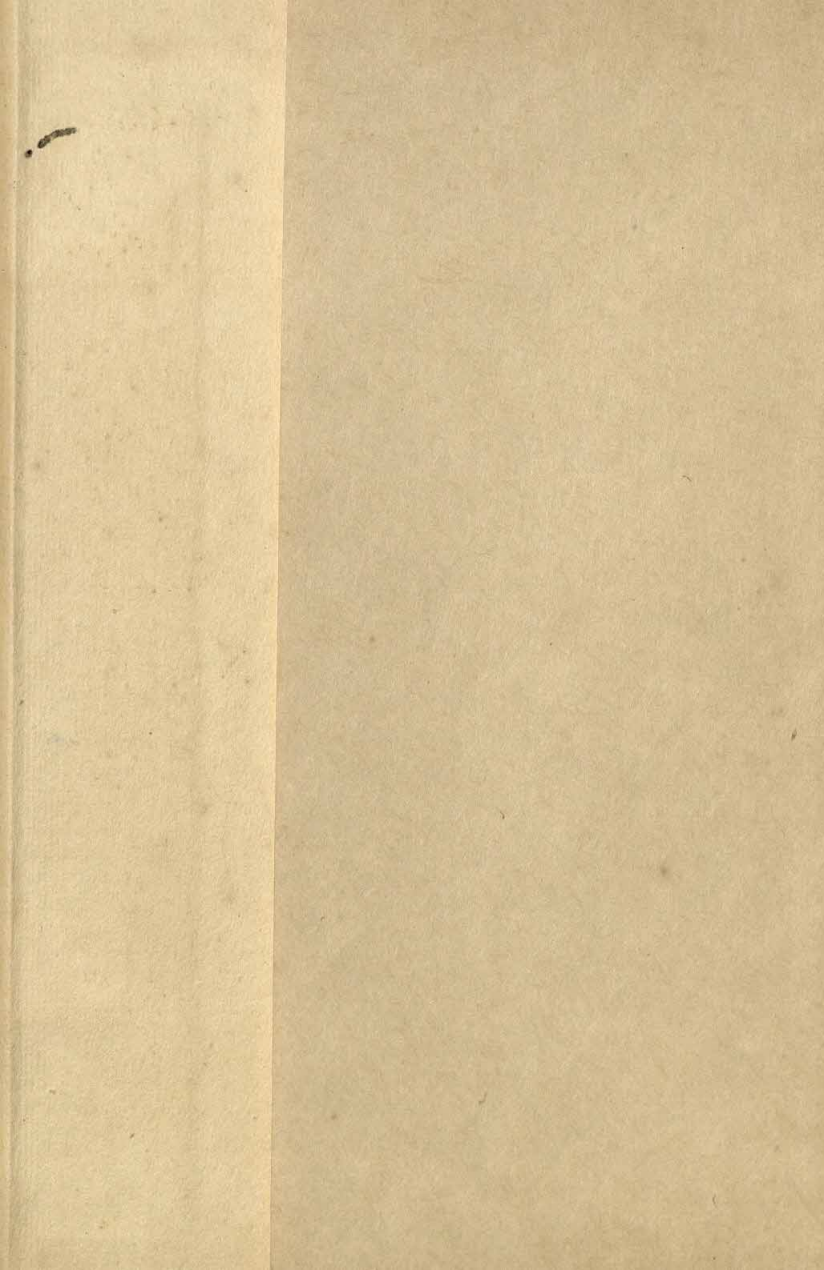
 Wall chart, 7, 15, 32, 57
 World-mindedness, 9, 25, 155
 World peace, 24

SUBJECTS FOR DISCUSSIONS, PROJECTS AND STUDY UNITS REFERRED TO IN TEXT

- Air, Man's Conquest of, 130
 Australia, Air Mail Letter to, 72-87
 Britain's Export Problem, 143, 146
 Britain's Place in the Modern World, 143
 China, 117
 C'lothes, xvii, 123
 Crime, 64, 122, 146
 Delinquency, Juvenile, 64
 Democracy, 120
 Dress, Elizabethan, 5
 Dress, the History of, 91
 Earth's Relationship with the Universe, 56
 Europe, xvii, 64, 91
 Farming, the History of, 130
 Feeding Mankind, 121
 Film Project, 115
 Flight, the History of Human, 123
 Gambling, 64
 Getting On with Others, 124
 Hansard Dramatized, 122
 Health, 125-8
 Holiday Project, 115
 Housing through the Ages, 130
 Industrial Revolution, 39
 Industry, Local, 5
 Inequality, the Problem of, 130
 Inventors, Famous, 130
 Keeping Things Going, 112
 London, Past and Present, xvii
 Londoner Looks at the World, 47
 Make-up?, Should Girls, 64
 Man, the Needs of, xvii
 Mankind, the Adventure of, 47, 53
 Manners?, What are Good, 36
 Men and Mountains, 116
 Mind?, Do You use Your, 118
 Mining, the History of, 59
 Music Project, 115
 Nature's Gifts to Man, 59
 News to Mars, 98
 Night, the Struggle against, 114
 Oil, 85, 87
 Paying for Puddleton, 114
 Peoples of the World, 91
 Play Project, 115
 Pound, One, to Spend, 111
 Professionals and Amateurs, 64
 Railways, the History of, xvii
 Ride round Extown, 110
 School?, Where is the, 109
 Science, Great Men of, 59
 Sea, the, 72, 113
 Smuggling, 110
 Southampton, 59
 Town, Our, 7, 130
 Transport, the History of, 15
 Treasure, Hidden, 111
 United Nations Organization, 130
 Voyages, Great, 130
 Wages, A National Policy, 145
 War and Aggressiveness, 36
 Whaling, the History of, 5
 Who Thought of it?, 112
 Wool, xvii
 World, Finding the, 122
 World, One, 125







The Teaching of Social Studies

THIS book states the case for Social Studies in secondary schools as the means both of broadening and integrating the content of the curriculum and of enriching the child's educational experience. It deals with theory in the form of a resumé and interpretation of current views, boldly faces what this theory involves in practice, and tackles the way the practical problems can be worked out by drawing upon methods and approaches that have been proved efficient in Britain and elsewhere. The book is both stimulating and exploratory; it resists all temptation to dogmatize and it essays novelty in method by the touchstone of a rich and coherent educational philosophy.

What should the content and scope of Social Studies be? What methods work? What are the errors to avoid? How should the Social Studies syllabus be planned? What are the qualities required in a Social Studies teacher? What content is appropriate to the final year at school? These and other questions are answered with a wealth of practical advice and detailed examples.

Professor Cyril Burt says in his Foreword to this book that he has "no hesitation in recommending it to all those teachers who are seeking to bring their curricula and their teaching methods into line with modern knowledge and with modern needs."

This new edition has been brought up to date.



LONGMANS